

Supervision for Better Schools

SUPERVISION

for BETTER SCHOOLS

*The Role of the Official Leader
in Program Development*

Second Edition

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TO
David, Jon, AND Wendy
AND
Better Schools for All Children

Foreword

It seems anomalous that in a democratic country educational leadership should have been so slow to become democratic in character. From its earliest beginnings, the term "supervision" has carried with it authoritarian, inspectoral, and, in general, unpleasant connotations. Even professional books on the subject have remained undemocratic in procedure while not infrequently arguing for democratic approaches. It is noteworthy that in the present volume we have one of the first consistent applications of a philosophy of a creative leadership to educational administration and supervision.

Too often books have been written on supervision which recognize the desirability of democratic supervision without setting forth what was really meant by such supervision practice. Occasionally, the techniques of political democracy have been adapted without a full recognition of the peculiar problems to be faced in the educational setting. Even worse, a narrow interpretation of democracy has been accepted which neglects its creative meaning in human relations. Dr. Wiles has avoided these pitfalls by recognizing the creative character of the human organism, by interpreting education as creative living, and by conceiving of supervision as the release of the creative talents of teachers, children, and people of the community. Those who are at work in leadership activities in American schools will welcome the fact that the author has not stopped with philosophical concepts, but has applied them in the major areas of leadership activities.

To accept the concepts outlined in this volume and to build them into a program of leadership for American education will

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not be an easy task; but when we have done it we shall, for the first time, have achieved an educational system which makes a creative impact on individual children and lays the foundation for working democratic communities.

Since the publication of the first edition of this volume, educational leaders, their students, and associates have applied its basic ideas both in the field and in graduate classes. As a result of these experiences, new material has been added and other sections have been modified to take advantage of what has been learned in the widespread use of the book. This second edition not only breaks new ground in theory but presents much that has been tested in experience.

Ernest O. Melby

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New York University*

Preface

For the past thirteen years, in industry and education, I have been attempting to help others acquire more skill in supervision. It has been a *rich experience in which I learned more than I contributed*. Members of groups with which I worked shared their knowledge, their values, their insights, their emotions, their sensitivity to the feelings of others, and their skills. All of us grew together.

In 1950, I tried to state the generalizations that these groups had reached on the basis of research and experience with the role of the official leader in releasing the creative power of group members. The writing was based on conclusions hammered out together.

One of the satisfactions for me has been the way in which individuals and groups throughout the country have taken responsibility for improving *Supervision for Better Schools*. Since the book appeared, many persons have written to support or contradict a generalization, an idea, or a statement. College classes have voluntarily evaluated the book and sent me their conclusions and recommendations. Groups of principals and supervisors, examining the book together, in various school systems, have forwarded their comments.

During the five years since 1950, it has been my privilege to test the principles stated in *Supervision for Better Schools* with seven hundred additional graduate students and with administrative and supervisory staff groups in twenty states. These persons have used their *own experience and study* as the basis for agreement, disagreement, or reservation.

In large part, the changes made in this revision are the product of the suggestions that have been offered.

Preface

A revision is a second chance for an author. In addition to providing an opportunity to bring the bibliography up to date, to add recent research, and to describe further insight, it makes possible an attempt to state in clearer language points that have been misunderstood and to elaborate on suggestions that have been too abstract. I hope I have been able to profit from the help that has been given to me. The past five years have *not led me to revise the basic principles advanced in the first edition*. In fact, the research in leadership and group work has given even greater support to the supervision procedures proposed.

But the evidence is still not conclusive, and the following statement from the preface of the first edition remains an accurate expression of my feelings:

"You may use this book to supplement or contradict your own experience. If it is at variance with your conclusions, I hope it will lead you to re-examine your own analysis. Groups will be able to use it as an hypothesis to test against their experience and *through their work together*.

"I hope these ideas will not be accepted unquestioningly by anyone. They are truth as we know it. They will be revised as we gain more experience and research data in the area of democratic living."

Kimball Wiles

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Supervision for Better Schools

Chapter I

What Is Supervision?

Supervision has many different meanings. Each person who reads or hears the word interprets it in terms of his past experiences, his needs, and his purposes. A supervisor may consider it a positive force for program improvement; a teacher may see it as a threat to his individuality; another teacher may think of it as a source of assistance and support.

How Effective Is Supervision?

From time to time, teachers have been asked what they felt about the supervisory practices in the systems in which they work. Their answers do not provide a basis for complacency.

One study was made of teacher opinion on the supervisory and administrative practices of elementary-school principals in a large county in a southern state. The study covered the areas of communication, human relations, and leadership. In this county,

47% of the teachers did not believe they were consulted on schedules or program change.

43% of the teachers did not think faculty meetings were used for thinking and working together.

30% of the teachers did not feel that the administrator did anything to create a friendly emotional climate for children.

35% of the teachers did not think that the principal tried to develop the faculty into a friendly, enthusiastic team.

35% of the teachers did not feel that teacher effort was recognized or that credit was given for achievement.

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47% of the teachers did not engage in problem-solving activities with the principal.

52% of the teachers did not seek assistance from the administrator in overcoming specific weaknesses.

41% of the teachers did not believe program changes were based on evaluation.

38% of the teachers did not feel that many attempts were being made to decrease the pressure of the job.

42% of the teachers said that teachers seldom or never received the type of leadership that stimulates them to do their best work.

The principals in this county may not behave in the manner described above, but this is the way their actions appear to

teachers. Their real actions are not important in determining the behavior of the faculty, since each teacher behaves in terms of his perception of the other person's action. *The way teachers see the supervisor behave conditions their response to his actions.*

A study by E. C. Hunter of the attitudes and morale of teachers in the public schools of a large city further highlights the problem of helping

teachers to improve the learning situation for boys and girls. In 1953, all the teachers were sent a questionnaire. Five hundred and three, or 24 per cent, replied. The following list summarizes their responses to selected questions:

49% stated that general working conditions did not encourage them to give their best services to classroom teaching.

34% did not often seek advice or counsel from their principal.

38% did not consider the quality of supervision in their school as constructive and conducive to the improvement of teaching.

42% did not believe their work was properly evaluated by the administrative and supervisory personnel.



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- 39% did not believe the administration and supervisory staff assisted and cooperated in every way possible in the performance of classroom duties.
- 46% did not feel free to follow the course of action which they felt would be beneficial to themselves and their pupils.
- 42% did not feel encouraged to make constructive suggestions on school policies and practices.
- 41% did not derive inspiration and encouragement in personal and professional relations in the system.

These responses were made in spite of the fact that 87 per cent of the teachers stated they were encouraged and aided by the system to attend workshops and study groups in order to study professional problems.

In Pennsylvania, when Mort and Cornell asked 2,416 teachers where they secured ideas for changes they had made or would like to make, only thirty-five mentioned the local supervisor. Teachers ranked suggestions from local supervisors twenty-third on the list of sources of new ideas.

In spite of this evidence, it is impossible to draw a general conclusion about the over-all effectiveness of supervision, because the supervisory pattern varies.

How Has Supervision Evolved?

Teachers' feelings about supervision differ from school to school because of the various ways in which supervisors interpret their role. The theory of supervision is in a state of rapid evolution. The supervisors in one system may hold to a philosophy and use procedures that are in direct conflict with those of supervisors in a system twenty miles away. Even within the same system teachers with several years of experience have probably encountered several types of supervision.

At one time, *supervision was a directing and a judging activity*. In the 1910's and 1920's the writing in the field of supervision recommended directing and telling and checking up to see whether or not people had done as they were directed. It is easy to see one reason for this emphasis. Teachers were not

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trained then as they are at mid-century. Some started teaching as soon as they had left high school, with very little pre-service education.

In the 1930's, the emphasis was on "democratic supervision." But a survey of the literature reveals that this term meant a type of manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly and maneuvered into doing what the supervisor wanted to do all along.

In the 1940's, even as early as 1932, some writers described supervision as a cooperative enterprise. They saw all the people in a school system supervising each other. For "supervising," it would be possible to substitute such phrases as helping each other, counseling with each other, planning with each other, or talking with each other about how to improve the teaching-learning situation. In this sense, the work of the person who is designated as a supervisor is a matter of making it easier for people to supervise each other.



This whole transition has taken place in the literature on supervision during a thirty-five-year period. Persons working as supervisors today may have been trained under any of these theories of supervision, or even under all three. Teachers have become confused about the meaning of supervision because they encounter all three methods in the supervisors they know, and even a Dr. Jekyll-Mr. Hyde pattern of inconsistency in the same supervisor!

How Does Supervision Occur?

A superintendent answers a principal's question about an in-service program by taking him to a conference where administrators are discussing ways of improving in-service training.

What Is Supervision?

A supervisor discusses with a principal some new evaluation devices she has discovered in another school. The audio-visual specialist describes new science films at a faculty meeting. The librarian offers to help the English teacher locate books dealing with snakes for the poor reader who wants to know more about them. A teacher volunteers to share some models of ships with the teacher who works in the next room. A teacher listens to the problems of a fellow teacher who is having trouble with a disturbed child and suggests several possible courses of action. The music supervisor helps the third-grade teacher with folk songs for the unit on People of Other Lands. The custodian offers to help the fifth-grade boys construct a window box for the science corner of the classroom. These are all supervisory actions.

Supervision is not limited to any one person or to individuals who carry the title of "supervisor." Any member of the school staff may assist teachers in providing a better learning environment for pupils. In fact, probably most supervision is provided by teachers for other teachers.

An important criterion, perhaps the major one, for judging the quality of a supervisory act, is whether it promotes or hinders creativity. An older teacher says to a younger one, "I wouldn't try group work. We've never done that here. You'll learn that all that theory you heard in college is impractical." The older teacher is destroying the desire of the new teacher to be creative. A principal remarks, "Your pupils were certainly noisy today," without bothering to discover what was going on in the classroom. He establishes barriers that may prevent the teacher from trying creative drama again. A supervisor comments, "That mural seems to represent real pupil thinking, planning, and cooperation. I'd like to see how you do it. Will you invite me to visit the next time the class undertakes a project like that?" This time, the supervisor is giving encouragement and the chances are good that the teacher will call on him for help when a more difficult creative project is undertaken.

What Is Supervision?

Supervision is assistance in improvement. It occurs when teachers are helped to take the next step beyond where they are now. Individual differences exist in teachers, just as in pupils, and if supervision is effective each teacher is attempting to make some improvement. One sixth-grade teacher may be learning how to help pupils develop individual spelling lists. Another may be undertaking his first excursion to collect wild-life specimens. The interests are not the same. The stages in development may be vastly different. Each wants help to carry out his purposes. Each will reject help that is appropriate to others but not to him. Supervision cannot be forced; it is effective when help is sought. Teachers, like pupils, listen and learn—when they are ready to learn.

Supervision is assistance in the development of a better teaching-learning situation.

What Is a Supervisor?

Certain members of the staff are labeled supervisors. Although they do not do all the supervising, they have a great part in determining whether the supervision is good. They are the expeditors. They help establish communication. They help



people hear each other. They serve as liaison agents to get persons into contact with others who have similar problems or with resource people who can help. They stimulate staff members to look at the extent to which ideas and resources are being shared, and the degree to which persons are encour-

aged and supported as they try new things. They make it easier to carry out the agreements that emerge from evaluation sessions. They listen to individuals discuss their problems and

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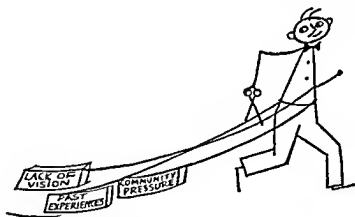
recommend other resources that may help in the search for solutions. They bring to individual teachers, whose confidence they possess, appropriate suggestions and materials. They sense, as far as they are able, the feelings that teachers have about the system and its policies, and they recommend that the administration examine irritations among staff members. They provide expertness in group operation, and provide the type of meeting place and structure that facilitate communication. They are, above all, concerned with helping people to accept each other, because they know that when individuals value each other they will grow through their interaction together and will provide a better emotional climate for pupil growth. The supervisor's role has become *supporting, assisting, and sharing*, rather than directing. The authority of the supervisor's position has not decreased, but it is used in another way. It is used to promote growth through *assuming responsibility and creativity* rather than through dependency and conformity. —

Supervision for Better Schools is an attempt to describe the way in which a supervisor may play the role described above.

Chapter 2

What Is the Function of a Supervisor?

The basic function of supervision is to improve the learning situation for children. If any person in a supervisory position is not contributing to more effective learning in the classroom, his existence in that position cannot be justified. Organization, equipment, staff relationships, and teacher welfare are impor-



tant only as devices for improving learning opportunities for children. Supervision is a service activity that exists to help teachers do their job better.

All teachers have greater potential than they use. Many factors—lack of vision, past experience, community pressure, lack of adjustment in human relations, poor personnel administration, inability to evaluate their work—prevent teachers from

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utilizing all their skills and abilities. The supervisor's function in the school is to help teachers release their full potential.

How Does a Supervisor Work?

Bill is tall, clean-cut, with expressive brown eyes that give a revealing picture of how he feels at any moment. He uses them in his work as principal of his school. He knows exactly the type of school he wants and he lets his faculty know. When a teacher is working the way Bill thinks he should, Bill's eyes beam with approval and delight. If the teacher works in a way less satisfying to Bill, his eyes narrow and become cold and hard. His mouth draws into a tight line.

Teachers know where they stand with Bill. He tells them. He tells them in private conferences in his office and he tells them in brief comments in the halls. He tells them by the way he greets them. If the teacher has lived up to Bill's expectations, he receives broad smiles, hearty greetings, pats on the shoulder, and other signs of comradeship during the daily encounters. If the teacher has not measured up to Bill's ideas, he is ignored, avoided, or given hasty, forced recognitions.

Faculty meetings in Bill's school are short, twenty-minute affairs. Teachers are told that the administration does not want to infringe upon their time. The meeting is called to order, Bill gives the teachers the information he feels they need to know, and then he dismisses them. No time is provided in the staff meeting or in teachers' schedules for planning. Teachers never hold small group meetings. Teaching schedules, textbooks, courses of study, and all the details of the operation of the school are decided upon by Bill after private conversation with the advisers from the staff that he chooses.

Bill's advisers are the members of the staff with whom he plays golf or cards. Naturally, no women are included.

Bill's office is at the entrance to the building. He knows who goes into the school and who leaves. Visitors must secure his permission before contacting any teacher or pupil. At every school event, Bill takes a position near the entrance to greet

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everyone who comes. When the school receives an invitation to be represented in a community activity, Bill goes.

Bill is efficient. He has worked out procedures and techniques so well that he is able to leave when the teachers do at the regular specified time of thirty minutes after the classes end. He is energetic. His zeal for his school is unquestioned. He goes to all the meetings he feels the school's public relations require and is always on the job throughout the day making inspections to see that everything is progressing the way he thinks it should.

Bill is an autocrat. He believes it is his function to decide what is to be done, to tell teachers what to do and how to do it, and to inspect to see how well his wishes are being executed. Supervision, as he conceives of it, consists of directing and inspecting.

Although autocrats as bad as Bill or worse still exist, most official leaders in education—superintendents, principals, department heads, special supervisors—are attempting to evolve more democratic ways of working.

Ann, in her late thirties, is charming. She dresses tastefully, is always well groomed. Men and women agree that she is attractive and make her the center of the stage wherever she goes.

She is a strong advocate of democracy and insists that her school is a model democracy at work. Faculty members are encouraged to talk over their problems with her. Committees at work on school improvement find her willing and anxious to discuss their proposals. She is extremely helpful and plans that incorporate her ideals are almost certain to gain faculty approval.

Ann likes to discuss school problems with influential teachers before the problems are brought to the attention of the faculty. Timing and strategy are important. Ann knows that the faculty will accept the proposals made by certain members and reject those made by others. She understands that opposition from

What Is the Function of a Supervisor?

key faculty members will defeat any proposal and seeks to gain their support for her ideas before the whole faculty is asked to take the time to consider them.

Any proposal for action that is brought to the floor of the faculty meeting without a previous conference between the initiator and Ann is usually referred to a committee for consideration and recommendations. Although the staff operates democratically, they know Ann likes to have sufficient time for thorough study before action is taken.

Ann is a student of group process and presides at faculty meetings held in a situation that promotes group thinking. Agenda are arranged by a committee that works closely with Ann in planning the meetings.

Ann has real ability to guide group thinking. She knows when to recognize persons who are in favor of the idea she believes is best and when to give the floor to the opposition. The faculty reaches consensus easily.

A few teachers leave the school or ask to be transferred each year, but Ann classifies them as the disgruntled diehards or persons who really do not understand modern education.

Ann interprets democratic supervision to mean gently guiding people into doing the things that she wants them to do. Teachers are not expected to have an equal part in determining the program or the way work should be done. Although she does not command or give direct orders, she works with teachers in such a way that they come to see the superior value of her viewpoint and way of work. No one ever uses the phrase "*supervision as diplomatic manipulation*," but it is the procedure Ann follows in the name of democracy.

Tom is slender, always well dressed, smokes a pipe, and has a ready smile. At times he seems slightly distracted. He has read widely in the professional literature, particularly in the field of philosophy. He expresses a fervent belief in democracy and the need for adapting the curriculum to meet the needs of the pupil. He believes, too, in giving teachers and pupils free-

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dom and an opportunity to be creative. Since he doesn't want the administration to restrict teachers or impose a pattern on them, he avoids letting teachers know what he thinks. He conceives of his role as creating the type of school environment in which teachers can teach in the best way they know.

Teachers who have been on his staff for years do not know where they stand with Tom. He listens to all of them patiently, gently, with that steady smile. His replies to their statements or questions carefully avoid giving value judgments. Every member of his staff always receives a warm, friendly greeting from Tom.

Tom calls frequent faculty meetings. They are usually two hours long, sometimes more. Everybody talks. Tom calls the meeting to order and asks the staff what problem needs to be considered. From that point, the meeting may take any pattern. No decisions ever seem to be reached. If the staff agrees on some point, it never seems to make much difference in the operation of the school. Each teacher has freedom, and statements of faculty policy are avoided because they may interfere with teacher creativeness. Tom hopes that out of faculty discussions will come guidance for each faculty member.

All the faculty serve as Tom's advisers. No one has any special responsibility. Whenever any member of the faculty has an idea, Tom's door is open and the faculty member is welcome to come in and talk it over.

Tom's office is by the main entrance too. But he does no checking on people who enter or leave. The school runs itself, Tom says. Confusion is a necessary part of freedom. Responsibility and self-direction cannot develop unless teachers and pupils are free to assume them.

Tom's work is not organized. The school secretary takes care of routine reports, orders, absences, and so on. Tom spends his time working with a teacher or a group of teachers on the pressing problem of the moment. He never seems to get finished.

Teachers in Tom's school participate in community activities

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if they choose. When requests for representatives in community affairs come to the staff, Tom asks for volunteers. If none are forthcoming, he goes himself.

Tom feels dissatisfied with the progress his school is making and he fears the teachers are dissatisfied with their achievement.

Tom, and others like him, interpret democratic supervision to mean giving teachers freedom and allowing the program to develop as individual teachers get new insight. It is a *laissez-faire* policy with no imposition and as little interference as possible from the supervisor. It fails to help the staff develop a sense of direction or a consistent program.

Jim is quiet, unassuming. He has no distinguishing features. Few persons ever turn to give him a second glance in a crowd. He is of average size, wears his clothes without care for appearance, chews his pipe, and has hair that never seems to be combed. He has a slow smile but never seems emotionally upset.

His faculty knows what he believes about education and the program of the school. He has made very clear in the numerous faculty meetings that he believes a school should be judged by the contribution it makes to living in the community in which it exists. And he knows what other faculty members believe, from the same meetings.

Faculty meetings are held each morning before school starts. The agenda is planned by a committee to which Jim and other faculty members submit items they would like to see included. Jim may or may not preside at the meetings. Whether he does or not, he constantly works for a group decision and allocation of responsibility. He believes it is his function to help all members of the faculty to become involved in making a decision and in reaching agreement upon how it will be carried out. He leaves faculty meetings with the understanding that he will fulfill responsibilities assigned to him and that he expects others to do the same. Committees and individual faculty members leave the meetings with their accepted responsibilities too.

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Teachers know where they stand with Jim and he knows where he stands with them. They tell each other as they evaluate their way of work in the faculty sessions.

A visitor entering the school in which Jim is principal is met by a student receptionist who helps the visitor locate the person he is seeking or explains the school's philosophy if asked. Students know what the school is trying to do. They have discussed it and have representatives at faculty meetings.

If the visitor wants to see the principal, the receptionist takes him to an office in the rear of the building. The visitor may have to wait until a conference with a committee of teachers or students is finished.

Jim spends much of his time in planning or evaluating sessions with groups that have accepted responsibility for the development of some portion of the school program. He believes his job is helping others define what they are going to do, thinking with them about ways of doing it, assisting them to execute the plans, and evaluating the results with them.

Bill, Ann, Tom, and Jim are all real persons but they are also stereotypes. *Most supervisors, probably even Bill, Ann, Tom, and Jim, mix a little of many types of leadership into their work.* Supervisory patterns of behavior are not clear-cut and the majority of supervisors are seeking to discover more effective ways of working with people.

The way of working *within* the staff illustrated by Jim gives the greatest promise of releasing the full potential ability of the staff. Such a supervisor is selected because of his ability to work with individuals and groups. *His special function is to work for the conditions under which people can think together about purposes and about ways of implementing them and to secure the resources that will make possible the growth of the staff in vision and skills.* The supervisor's word does not carry more weight than the word of other members of the staff in policy formation. His vision is not expected to be superior to that of the combined intelligence of the working group. He is a helper

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and a resource person to other members of a cooperatively working team.

The within-the-group approach to supervision has come about as a result of many factors. The enunciation of a democratic philosophy of education and the analysis of the implications of such a philosophy for the schools have caused many to reconsider their way of working with people. Research in the field of social psychology on the formation and productivity of groups has made clear that people work together better and with greater effectiveness when the members participate in establishing goals and in formulating work methods. Studies in group dynamics have shown that leadership from outside a group operates to build counter leadership within the group. Analysis of the results of various types of leadership has shown that people are happier, produce more, and exhibit less aggression toward each other when the leadership is of a cooperative nature within the group.

The principal problem for supervisors is to discover ways of working cooperatively *within* staffs.

The improvement of the learning situation for children cannot be provided by centering supervisory attention upon teaching techniques. The teaching is the product of the teacher's total experiences. To improve instruction, supervision must provide: leadership that develops a unified school program and enriches the environment for all teachers; the type of emotional atmosphere in which all are accepted and feel that they belong; opportunities to think and work together effectively as a faculty group; personnel procedures that give the teacher confidence in the school system; and program change based on honest evaluation. Such supervisory activities produce the type of school in which teachers grow in their capacity to evolve more worth-while learning experiences for children. Throughout the remainder of this book, the focus will be on an analysis of ways to perform these five functions cooperatively *within* the group. Although it is recognized that any division is artificial and for the purpose of analysis only, the following treatment of super-

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vision will be divided into five parts: skill in leadership; skill in human relations; skill in group process; skill in personnel administration; skill in evaluation.

Supervision as Skill in Leadership

The supervisor has the responsibility for encouraging leadership in others. If the staff is to exercise its full potential, the ideas and leadership of all must be used. Creating an atmosphere in which all contribute their best thinking must be one of the major efforts of a supervisor.

A first step in the improvement of the school's program is the establishment of common purposes. One of the reasons super-



vision exists is to help people to agree upon certain goals and to work together for their achievement. If supervision is not effective in getting the staff to agree on the purposes they are seeking, little change will take place in the program. Until agreement has been reached, conflict and confusion will prevail. Many supervisory failures come from lack of realization of the importance of common goals.

The establishment of common goals is only the first step. If the program is to be improved, the staff must have opportunities to share ideas, procedures, and materials. Techniques by which this sharing is made possible include workshops, committee activity, and providing time for teams of teachers to meet together and to develop particular phases of the school

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program. The supervisor needs skill in helping the staff plan for these activities.

He must have skill in bringing ideas and resources to the staff. One of these resources will be the supervisor himself. He works in such a way that teachers call upon him for assistance in solving problems, for help in overcoming specific weaknesses. He provides teachers with materials that contain new ideas. He comes to the teacher's room on request to observe and think with the teacher about new methods that will enable the teacher to solve the difficulties confronting him. He brings to the teacher's attention resource persons in the community who can be of assistance.

The official leader must accept responsibility for building high morale among the members of the staff. Morale consists of many things. It involves a feeling that members of the administrative staff are concerned about the problems and point of view of individual staff members. For the supervisor, it means providing the best possible working conditions and having the staff know that their welfare is important; it means that the individual teacher must know that his opinion is given consideration in the formation of purposes and procedures; it means the creation of working conditions in which people have an opportunity to know each other and like each other as individuals.

If leadership is to be developed in the staff, the supervisor must have skill in sharing decision-making. As the administration gives the staff a part in thinking through the solutions to problems confronting the local system, the teachers begin to feel that the solutions and plans for action in that system are their plans, and they begin to assume more responsibility for their successful implementation. As the teachers assume this responsibility, they grow in ability. In other words, the potential that teachers have for increased responsibility is released.

Such supervisory action has another important effect. It increases the creativeness of teachers. Creativeness occurs as teachers acquire the feeling that they are able to make worth-

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while decisions, that their plans have value, and that the supervisory staff is there to assist them to carry out their plans rather than to veto them.

Supervision as Skill in Human Relations

One of the functions of supervision is the creation of a wholesome emotional tone for the school. Some schools are happy, hard-working, enjoyable situations. Others are dull, disagreeable places which both teachers and pupils dislike and avoid as much as possible. In the first type of school, teachers like each other and enjoy being with the pupils. In the second type of school, teachers have little in common and get away from the children as soon as they can. Much of the difference lies in the way the supervisor works with people and sets the stage for relationships of others.

The basic way for a supervisor to help create a satisfying emotional tone is by respecting the personality of all individuals with whom he comes in contact. Respect for the personality of teachers by the supervisor has many manifestations. It involves being concerned about them and their problems, being willing to place their desires ahead of his own, giving full consideration to their ideas and suggestions, creating the type of staff meetings in which each teacher has an opportunity to make his opinions known, encouraging socializing activities that build friendly relationships among the staff, providing working conditions that are comfortable and attractive, and such commonplace things as maintaining an even disposition and showing courtesy.

Respect for personality by the supervisor cannot stop with the teachers, even though the way the supervisor treats teachers influences the way teachers deal with children. The supervisor must set the example in respecting the personality of children. Each child in the school must be made to feel welcome and a part of the program. Each child must be treated fairly, regardless of race, religion, or color. Each child must feel that the

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administration and the teachers are his friends and not persons who bend all efforts to seeing that he conforms to a certain pattern of behavior. Each child must know that his feelings, his aspirations, and his abilities are considered in the planning of the school's activities and of his particular set of experiences.

Such a set of standards implies certain things in the way a supervisor deals with the members of the student body. He listens to students' desires and complaints. He creates the channels of communication through which student ideas can be made known. He encourages the collection of sufficient information about each child to make it possible for the teacher to guide the child through an individualized curriculum.

To a large degree, the emotional tone of the school is determined by the supervisor's attitude toward the out-of-school life of the teacher. Supervision must be considered as broader than assisting with classroom problems. For years psychology has been stressing that our reaction to any given situation is affected by our total experience. Supervision within the schools must also recognize the importance of helping teachers meet their personal problems. A supervisor's job involves listening to teachers when they have emotional difficulties in their personal life. It involves securing necessary aid to help teachers meet personal and financial problems. No matter how much teachers are told that they should park their troubles by the door as they enter the classroom, it is a physical impossibility. A supervisor can help create a wholesome emotional climate for students by helping teachers solve their personal problems.

A wholesome emotional climate involves even more. The supervisor must have a warm, sincere, humble personality. He must be able to answer positively such questions as:

Do you like people?

Do people like to be around you?

Do people tell you their desires and their problems?

Do you find it easy to give others credit?

Do you habitually think of how others will feel before you make a decision?

Supervision as Skill in Group Process

A supervisor must be able to develop a situation in which people work cooperatively. Persons grow as they share with others. Learning takes place through the reconstruction of experiences, and experiences are reconstructed as individuals are



brought into contact with the ideas and experiences of others. A staff grows as its members have opportunities to think, plan, and work together. If a positive, cooperative, working atmosphere is to be established, provision must be made for faculty sessions in which teachers have time, as a

group, to identify the school's problems and to plan ways of meeting them. Working cooperatively also involves bringing the children and parents into the organization and the execution of the school program. Occasions are found for joint pupil and teacher planning outside the classroom, and parents work cooperatively with the staff in providing special services that the school could not otherwise make available to students.

Calling a faculty together and telling them that they are to plan and work together is not sufficient. The attention of the supervisor must be focused constantly upon the process being used. When a meeting is planned, or a project organized, he must see that the organization of the group facilitates the purpose of the meeting or the activity. To be successful, the supervisor must develop skill in the planning of effective group work and in helping the group analyze and evaluate its procedures. One of the most important functions of a supervisor is to help the staff to see the way it is working and to devise more effective ways of working together. He must know how group feeling is built, how group purpose is established, how group planning is done, how arriving at decisions and delegating re-

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sponsibility are achieved, and how plans are evaluated and revised in terms of achievement. Without these skills, a supervisor has little chance for success.

An important part of good group process is organization. Committees must know the functions they are to perform, how these functions will fit in with the work of other committees, the place of the committee in the organizational structure of the staff, or the way the work of the committee will be brought to bear on school problems. Without a plan of organization that implements the work of committees, the staff begins to feel that time spent in committee work is useless because no action is ever taken to execute the policy that the committees formulate. Too frequently a gap exists between the policy formation procedure that occurs in faculty committee structure and the implementing of policies by the administration. Unless such failure is quickly remedied, the work of the supervisor in program improvement is almost certain to result in failure.

The supervisor may fail unless he involves the community in the group work of the school. Any change in a program needs community understanding and support. One of the best ways to achieve this is to have representatives of the community sit with the faculty as decisions are made that affect the program and as plans are made for implementing the decisions. As community members have this experience, assurance that they will back the changes made is increased. The program has become theirs and they are as committed to its success as is the teaching staff.

Supervision as Skill in Personnel Administration

The supervisor has the responsibility for taking leadership in the selection of new staff members. To perform this function satisfactorily, he must be able to analyze a position and determine the qualities the person filling it needs; he must be able to devise situations in which satisfactory indices to behavior are obtained, and to interpret that evidence in terms of the position involved. A poor choice of teachers will handicap the program

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for years. The selection of new staff members involves determining with the staff the qualifications that should be possessed by replacements or additions to the staff, the screening of candidates, the recommendation of the top candidates, the choice of the person who will most adequately fill the position, and a discussion with the person selected of the school's program and the way the staff works.

This talk is the first step in the induction of a new staff member. Much of the success in the development of a good staff depends upon the induction program. New staff members should not be expected to become worth-while members of the staff without help from the supervisor or staff. It is the supervisor's responsibility to make known the working conditions, to provide assistance in meeting the problems that new teachers meet, to encourage older members of the staff to help new teachers feel that they belong, and to see to it that the new teacher is placed in the type of situation in which he can be most useful.

The same skills, plus ability to analyze the emotional factors in a situation, are needed in the proper placement of current staff members. Improper placement of individual teachers deprives the school of the full talents of the staff. A supervisor must constantly watch for misplaced persons and must take time to work out shifts in personnel that will increase the efficiency of the staff members.

Proper placement may involve shifting a teacher from one position to another until he is located in the spot where he can make the maximum contribution. Shifting should not be considered as making special allowances for the weaknesses of staff members, nor should it be used as a disciplinary device. Rather, changing the responsibilities of a staff member should be looked upon as an attempt to make the best possible use of his skills.

In addition to shifting the personnel to make more effective use of their abilities, staff improvement depends upon an in-service training program that increases the skills of teachers. In-service education must be provided to prepare for the next

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steps in program development. The supervisor must examine policies agreed upon by the staff to determine what new types of skills will be needed in the faculty to implement these policies. And experiences must be established through which faculty members can gain these understandings and skills. It is as important to help staff members acquire new skills before program changes are made as it is to purchase new materials to be used in the new program.



A basic skill in personnel administration is the interview. Recognition that the interview is a situation for problem analysis and planning rather than an occasion to sell the teacher on the supervisor's point of view increases the value of the interview as a means of staff and program improvement.

Supervision as Skill in Evaluation

Skill in the use of evaluation procedures enables a supervisor to help his staff make more intelligent decisions. Without assistance in evaluation, many teachers are forced to rely on guesses and unproved hypotheses rather than on systematically collected evidence.

Evaluation involves skill in: defining goals and establishing standards by which to judge the amount of change; collecting evidence of change; applying the criteria and making judgments about the worth of the change; and revising plans in terms of the



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judgments. The supervisor with skill in evaluation will be able to help teachers in all these activities.

He must help the staff to evaluate its group activities and to make decisions on how to improve its group processes. Techniques such as the process observer and discussion flow charts for collecting data may be brought to the staff's attention, and the staff may be encouraged to use them as instruments for self-improvement.

Self-improvement is the key to the evaluation process. Self-rating is substituted for supervisory rating when the supervisor leads from within the group. The staff may be encouraged to develop a self-rating form. In the process of constructing such instruments, the staff grows as individuals and as a group by exchanging ideas. After the self-rating check list has been formed, each teacher has a set of criteria by which he can judge his own work.

The supervisor is equally concerned about evaluating his own work. He wants to know how much progress he is making, how he is getting along with people, which procedures decrease his effectiveness. He, too, must have a self-rating form and a way of bringing the intelligence of the total staff to bear on finding better ways to work.

Who Is a Supervisor?

Any official leader, superintendent of schools, principal, department head, or staff officer is a supervisor. All spend a portion of their time seeking improvement of the instructional program. Even while they are engaged in administrative activities, the procedure used has a direct effect on their supervisory function. This book is designed to suggest ways in which any person assigned responsibility for helping others in program improvement can work more effectively.

Supervision as Skill in Leadership



*A leader is best
When people barely know that he exists,
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him,
Worst when they despise him.
“Fail to honor people
They fail to honor you”;
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will all say, “We did this ourselves.”*

*Witter Bynner, The Way of Life According
to Lo-tzu, An American Version, The John
Day Company, New York, 1944, pp. 34-35.*

Chapter 3

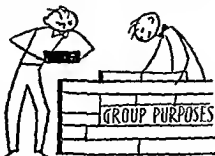
Where Does Leadership Begin?

As a supervisor begins to work in a staff, he must be sure that he has a functional concept of leadership and a clear picture of the relationships he wishes to attain in the group. This chapter analyzes the meaning of leadership, explores three types of relationship a supervisor might seek, and offers suggestions of specific steps that can be taken to establish a desirable status in the staff.

What Is Leadership?

Leadership is any contribution to the establishment and attainment of group purposes. It may be exercised by the supervisor or by any member of the staff.

A definition that restricts leadership to persons in official positions is a denial of life situations. *Real leadership in a group may or may not be exercised by the officially designated leader.* Any person may make a contribution to the success of the group.



Note that leadership is a quality of group activity. A person cannot be a leader apart from a group. It is the contribution that an individual makes in a group situation. A group and leadership are mutually dependent. Neither exists without the other. A group must have leadership. Unity must be established, otherwise the group remains a collection of

individuals. Someone must have a basic concern for developing group feeling and coordination. Leadership is a crucial quality that someone must exert if a group is to come into being and continue to exist.

Two types of leadership are possible—official leadership and leadership that emerges from the group. Official leadership is appointed by some authority outside the group or elected from within the group by the group. Emerging leadership may come from any member of the group. It is recognized as the group incorporates the contribution into its purposes or procedures.

Supervisors are official leaders who are almost always appointed by an authority outside the group in which the supervisor works. Throughout this book attention is focused on the official leader and the way he provides the most helpful leadership for the staff of the school in which he works.

What Type of Leadership Is Desirable?

An official leader may take at least three approaches to his work. First, he may believe it is his function to dominate, control, and operate the group. He may conceive of himself as "working on" a group. Second, he may believe it is his function to help the group carry out its purposes. He may conceive of his role as "working for" a group. Or third, the official leader may believe it is his job to help a group to form and execute purposes. He may conceive of his role as "working within" a group.

The third conception of the way official leadership can help a group release its full ability is the *only defensible one*.

Domination can be challenged on the basis of its contradiction of democratic concepts, but it is equally vulnerable when judged by its effect on releasing the full power of the group. Domination weakens the ability of groups and individuals. As someone makes decisions for the group, the power of members of the group to make their own decisions is reduced. Domination results in a decrease in the ability of all but the leader to make decisions and take the initiative.

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Domination seeks to weaken the strength of individuals within the group. Either they lose the power to be independent, or the domination of the official leader is challenged. Official leadership that seeks to control the group must be concerned with creating a perpetual dependence on the thinking and actions of the leader.

Domination must be indicted on two other counts. When a group is subjected to domination, it will deliberately organize its own actions in opposition to authority. Official leadership finds itself outside the group, with real leadership leading the opposition to official leadership. The only way to keep control is by breaking or compromising the real leadership. Second, studies of authoritarian leadership have indicated that when real leadership is broken and the group does not dare to oppose authority, members of the group unable to strike back at the leader display aggression toward each other. In one group studied by Lippitt, where autocracy was the form of leadership, members displayed thirty times as much aggression toward each other as in another working group where the leadership was more democratic.

"Working for" the group is a denial of leadership. If we recognize that leadership is a part of a group activity, actions taken by someone outside the group cannot be interpreted as leadership. If the official leader is "working for" the group, he will be outside it. He has not been in the group, figuratively speaking, when purposes were developed or when the plan of action was accepted. Even if it were possible to lead by "work-

ing for" a group, an official leader should not wait for the staff to become a group with common purposes and to tell him what to do. He has an official responsibility to help the group achieve unity. Someone must take the initiative to help the individuals on the staff to find out what they want to do. The official leader is assigned this function by his appointment.

The official leader must recognize that he can function only as he is a part of the group.

What Is the Official Leader's Place in a Group?

The official leader of the group must win acceptance as a member of the group if he is to be effective. As an outsider given charge of the group, he is viewed with suspicion by the members of the group and will be so regarded until he proves himself by the way he works with them.

A new superintendant was appointed in a New England town where there is a strong teachers' association. Within the first two months on the job, he wrote a letter to the teachers' association asking them to advise him on steps they felt should be taken in the school system. He added a statement that he assumed the program of curriculum improvement that was under way would continue. This statement appeared acceptable and representative of a cooperative approach. But it aroused the antagonism of the teachers' association. They discovered that the superintendent had discussed the financing of a curriculum study with the Board of Education and assumed he was attempting to manipulate them into action. Because of the teachers' previous experiences, their suspicions of a new official leader were doubly strong, and they were unusually sensitive and alert to see that the group's position was not weakened. The association reacted by stopping all work of members on curriculum improvement.

If this letter had been written after the teachers had learned to know and trust the superintendent, it would undoubtedly have been received in the spirit in which it was written. Only if the leader is accepted as a working member can he hope to influence the group's direction and purposes.

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As official leader he cannot preconceive the goals for the group. If he does, he is still in the position of "working on" the group. He has goals that he hopes will emerge and he contributes them as ideas for group consideration after he has been accepted as a working member of the group, but in no sense must he offer these ideas as a statement of official position or direction. If he does, his acceptance as part of the group will be destroyed.

As official leader he uses his influence to deepen teachers' insight into the methods of group thinking, and into the importance of building the program on scientific evidence gained through experimentation. His emphasis is on constant improvement, using the concerns of the group as the starting point.

In the process of improvement he constantly seeks to increase the unity of the group, to encourage the experimental approach, to enrich the group thinking, to build the security and self-confidence of the group, to help the group see clearly the boundaries of its authority, to increase interaction and sharing of experience, and to extend the opportunities for leadership.

As official leader he wants to spread the leadership in the



group, because he recognizes that sharing leadership helps the members grow in ability and thereby increases the strength of the group. He recognizes that spreading committee chairmanships or special assignments of responsibility through the faculty increases the opportunity for more people to exercise

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leadership. He works to keep the organization of the group from concentrating responsibility in a few people.

An official leader has the responsibility of helping a group to establish the organization necessary to study and improve the program. He is the member to whom the group may turn for help with organizational problems. If they do not seek his assistance, he may suggest organizational procedures which the group must feel free to turn down. If he attempts to force a structure on the group, he again forces himself out of the group.

An organization cannot be forced on a group. It emerges as the members work together. It grows out of the relationships of the people who compose the group. If an attempt is made to force an organization that runs counter to the group's working relationships, the attempt will be ignored. An effective organization of a group must be created by the group as a structure through which it can study and solve its problems.

If we want to secure greater participation in leadership roles, we must concentrate first on helping staff members to know and value each other.

One of the factors that a school administrator faces as he attempts to spread responsibility is the manner in which individual staff members regard themselves. Certain individuals glory in their chairmanships and want to keep them. An attempt to give more people an opportunity to serve as leaders is a threat to those who yearn to monopolize the leadership roles. Other teachers feel inadequate and afraid. Out of a desire to shirk responsibility or a sincere belief that their leadership will not be sufficiently skillful, they try to avoid chairmanships by re-nominating the persons who have served before, or by insisting that everything has been going so well it would be undesirable to institute any change.

The attitudes that staff members have toward one another may also hinder the attempt to spread leadership. Any staff will have developed confidence in certain persons. Through the years, the staff has come to respect their judgment and their ability to guide studies and committee work. Other staff mem-

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bers, through erratic and ill-timed statements, have lost the faith of their fellows. They are considered weak and inept. The success of a project depends upon which staff members are designated as leaders. If a person is selected whom the staff considers able, the other members will want to work with the committee and will give a fair hearing to the proposal that results. If a teacher who is considered unskilled, self-seeking, unintelligent, or shallow is selected as chairman, the others will seek ways to avoid working with him and the proposal that results will have less chance of acceptance.

After the official leader has been accepted by the group, he may raise questions that will cause other members of the group to re-examine their position and procedures. Out of these self-analyses by members of the staff may develop a concern that will lead the group to undertake an improvement in the phase of the program about which the official leader raised a doubt. But he cannot force the group to accept his concern. It must be a concern of the group, not of the official leader.

The place defined for the official leader does not make him a less dynamic person. It increases his potential power. It allows a person with leadership to get into a position where he can use it. Qualities that generate enthusiasm and unity are wasted if preconceived ideas of status and organization prevent an official leader from using those qualities effectively.

How Does a New Supervisor Begin?

An official leader can reach his position by two routes. Either he can be promoted from the ranks or he can be brought into the situation from an outside position. Both routes have their difficulties.

If a man is promoted from the ranks, the staff knows him and his strengths and weaknesses before he starts exercising official leadership. He is a member of the group. He must not allow that relationship to change. His chief problem will be his own behavior. He will have to choose his words much more carefully. He will have to guard against actions that will be mistaken

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for assumptions of superiority. He will find that exercising leadership from the supervisor's spot requires different procedures from exercising leadership without official status in the group.

When a supervisor is brought in from the outside, first impressions can do much to win acceptance or to build up enormous hurdles that must be overcome. In a large eastern city, a new principal meeting his faculty for the first time said, "I feel that this is the worst high school in the city and I shall stay here only until I am able to secure a transfer." It is easy to imagine the impression created by that opening statement. The faculty had assembled hoping to find real leadership, even though the caustic remarks of the cynics in the group indicated that the chances were not great. Their none too bright hopes were rudely shattered by this opening remark and the principal handicapped himself unnecessarily. By one unfortunate remark made before the staff had had a chance to know him, this principal had set the stage in a way that would make the creation of morale and a good working situation exceedingly difficult.

Out of the first meeting with the staff should develop a feeling that a new official leader is humble, friendly, has a sense of direction, and is willing to learn. Actions that tend to create feelings of antagonism, suspicion, distrust, or the impression that the official leader knows all the answers should be avoided.

Neither should the supervisor give the staff the impression that he is out to make a name for himself. The following excerpt from the letter of a beginning supervisor shows his awareness of this pitfall:

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The work here becomes increasingly exciting. Slowly and gradually teachers are beginning to extend their confidence and enlarge their hopes. What's especially pleasing is that they are not pinning their hopes on me, but on themselves. In spite of this, however, I'm centering most of my activities in the system.

The state executive committee proposed me to represent them on the national council. I asked them to reconsider the nomination. I have the feeling that much as I'd like the growth which might come from this work, it might seriously impair my work here. I've had to overcome a certain amount of wariness in teachers. They are afraid of the possibility of my using them and their work in the system as a stepping stone of some sort. Nothing personal—just the result of sad experience. While I think few, if any, feel that way now, I don't want to give any reason for believing there is a possible element of opportunism in my work.

One way to get the staff to work with the official leader is to let them know that their help is desired. One of the first duties of the supervisor is to make clear that the program is not his but that of the staff, that any progress that will be made will be progress of the staff and not the supervisor. He is there to help staff members develop the program and he can help only if staff members indicate to him ways in which he can make a contribution. He needs also to indicate that he will make mistakes because he is new, but that these mistakes will be fewer if he has the guidance of the staff.

Many young supervisors experience difficulty because they fail to win the support of older, more experienced members of the staff who look upon the younger person as inexperienced and immature. Unless the supervisor goes out of his way to let them know that he intends to make use of their experience



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and knowledge, the chances are great that they will not give their full support to the program. One of the surest ways to secure their assistance is to let them know that he will be coming to them for information and help, that they have great responsibility for giving clear interpretations of the values of the present program, and that the staff needs these ideas as much as it does the thinking of new staff members.

In his opening remarks to the staff, the supervisor should get across the idea that the success of any program depends upon the extent to which staff members are able to work together and help each other.

One of the sources of help for a new supervisor is his predecessor. Even though the person who was in the position before is being relieved of his responsibility and feels bitterness toward those responsible, he will have much helpful information for the new supervisor. The newcomer will want to secure the former leader's analysis of the situation. Although this information may be biased, it should be weighed and evaluated to see what guidance may be obtained from it. Particularly helpful would be the outgoing supervisor's estimate of the strengths and weaknesses of various staff members, his description of the plan of operation of the program that is under way, and his statements concerning the pitfalls and problems involved.

The new supervisor should remember that he is on trial. It is not his function to go into a new position and judge his predecessor, the staff, or the program. He will want to avoid behaving like the supervisor that this Washington teacher described:

Our supervisor was new to the district and unknown to nearly all the teachers, except by name. He walked into a room unannounced, sat for three hours and watched the proceedings of the class and walked out without a word to the teacher he had observed.

The new supervisor must put the staff at ease. It is just as important for a supervisor to take this step as it is for him to devote the first part of an interview to making the other person feel at ease. Although the need for putting the other person

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at ease in an interview is widely recognized, the need for spending the first phase of work together in getting acquainted and making persons feel secure in their relationships with each other is not as well understood.

To put the staff at ease, one of the first things an official



leader will want to do is to meet the staff on a social basis. This will give the staff members a chance to learn that the new supervisor is accessible and easy to know. It will give the official leader a chance to observe the personal qualities that will hinder or promote the increasing socialization of the staff. Staff members will want to know that the official leader likes people and wants their friendship. They will try to discover whether they can respect him as a person as well as a professional leader. Professional leadership is not enough. Staffs need the type of relaxed, tension-free social relationships that enable them to accept, understand, and work with one another. The staff watches to see whether the official leader contributes to this type of emotional environment.

The social situation should be as informal as possible. Formality tends to increase the status lines and the rigidity of the staff. Informal situations in which the official leader finds it easy to move from small group to small group are much more productive in giving the staff a chance to know him as a person. Getting acquainted socially may be continued throughout

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the year and combined with the solution of staff problems. Here is how one beginning principal in a western state went about it:

It was our principal's first year as a principal and five of the eight teachers in the school were new to the system. Two of us were teaching for the first time.

In an endeavor to bring about friendly relationships among teachers and between faculty and the administration, coffee time was scheduled for each afternoon after school. It lasted for only fifteen or twenty minutes but it gave us an opportunity to talk over our individual and mutual problems as well as to plan for future activities. The net result was a feeling of being able to discuss our problems freely and to profit from the experience of other members of the staff.

Another aspect of putting the staff at ease is to start with the assumption that all members of the staff are strong. A supervisor will want to start by looking for good qualities that he can commend. As he gives recognition to the positive side of the existing program, he will build the confidence of staff members in their relationship with him. An analysis of weak points in the beginning of the work together will alienate some members of the staff who would otherwise be willing to give the new official leader a trial. Starting out with an accent on the positive serves the same purpose as discussing common interests in the beginning of an interview.

If the official leader stresses his role as a coordinator rather than as a dictator of policy, he will help put people at ease. They will feel certain that no one is going to come into the situation and institute *change more rapidly than they can accept it*. Emphasis on the coordinator role makes it clear that the supervisor conceives of his job as a service function rather than as a directing function.

The official leader should assure the staff that he will continue the present method of operating. Drastic changes will not be made immediately. One principal entering a new job asked his superintendent what to do. The superintendent's reply was, "Nothing." His point was that it is important for the new

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supervisor to keep the present program going until he has had a real opportunity to get his feet on the ground. He should not make changes just to assert his authority or to let the staff know that a new man is on the job. He should make clear that immediate changes will be made only at the request of the staff. The staff knows the situation, and any action taken by a newcomer without the knowledge supplied by the staff would be rash.

The procedure outlined eliminates any upset or confusion when a new official leader is introduced. It provides for a smooth transition from the previous leadership to the new. By proceeding in this way the official leader has an opportunity to learn the job. He will want to talk with each person on the staff, or, if this is impossible because of its size, with the representative of each group or department.

How Are Changes Initiated?

Any change should be made on the basis of evaluation. The supervisor will want to approach the program from an evaluation point of view. He will want to collect the facts, pass judgment on these facts with the staff, and make plans for revision in terms of the judgments made. Through this approach the official leader will show that he is not making changes just to be different. He will emphasize his respect for evidence. He will demonstrate his respect for the members of the staff by accepting the effort and work that they have put into the existing program. The new supervisor must remember that the program he finds represents the best thinking and effort that the staff has inherited has been able to achieve. Any negative judgment on his part without evidence that they have examined with him is a destructive criticism of them as persons. It builds antagonism.

By following the evaluation approach, the new official leader is making clear to the staff that the program is their program and their responsibility. This approach keeps the staff from feeling that programs belong to official leaders and that they

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change completely as official leaders are changed. A high-school staff that had had three new principals in six years greeted the fourth principal with the general attitude of "There is no need for us to become excited about your program because you will be moving on in two years and we will have to adopt another one." When staff members assume this attitude, they have lost both their professional responsibility and the opportunity to develop professional direction. It is the official leader's job to help the staff understand that the program is theirs and that his function is to help them improve it.

A new supervisor should listen more than he talks. Any per-



son going into a new situation will make mistakes based on lack of information about the job. The more experienced members of the staff will know many details of the method of operation which the supervisor cannot hope to know. Foolish statements based on this lack

of information will put the new supervisor in the unfavorable position of having to correct or revise the step that he has taken.

An industrial engineer was placed in charge of the sales department of a large concern. One of the members of the department who had hoped to be appointed supervisor came to the engineer and asked how he should conduct the mailing campaign that was then in progress. The new supervisor wisely recommended that the older employee go ahead with the program the way it had been planned until the new supervisor had become thoroughly acquainted with the department and its operation.

Another supervisor in the same organization proceeded on an entirely different basis. When he met his staff for the first time, he stated publicly that he did not like the way the program was being conducted and from now on everything would be done differently. He put his declaration into effect immediately. Although his staff went along with his program, they did not

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thoroughly accept it, and as soon as the man moved to a new job they began working *for the return* of the practices that had been used in the department *before he came*. This man never thoroughly sold his staff on his program and his procedure, because he had discarded without a fair evaluation a system to which they had contributed and to which they felt loyalty.

A supervisor's first job is to become acquainted with the program he is to guide. If he does most of the talking, his chance of becoming acquainted with it is less.

Where Does a New Supervisor Start?

If the supervisor conceives of his job as helping his staff, he will want to start with the problems that the members of the staff have. It will be a way of demonstrating that he is sincere in his desire to help and in his acceptance of the value of the program that the staff has developed. These problems may be unimportant from the supervisor's point of view.

In one school in the Southern Study, the school faculty started to work on the problem of "How to get the students to bring their pencils to class." Although the principal felt that this was a relatively unimportant problem, he recognized that it was a real problem to the faculty. As he worked with the faculty and proved himself helpful, he created a readiness to bring him into the solution of other problems that were more important.

A new supervisor cannot tell his staff which problems are important in the school. He can only create a situation in which the staff will bring its important problems into the open, and in which the supervisor may be of assistance in solving them.

One technique for bringing the problems of a school to the surface was followed by a new superintendent in Springfield, Massachusetts. He wrote to all the teachers in the system and asked them to list the problems on which they felt the staff should be working. Using the statements of the teachers, he compiled a list of the twenty-five problems mentioned most frequently. He requested the staff to select those problems from

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the list thus created to serve as the basis for an in-service training program that was to be instituted in the school system that year.

In Pasadena, California, discussion groups of teachers, secretaries, custodians, central office personnel, and administrators were formed. Each of the fifty-two discussion groups made recommendations for improvements they felt should be put into effect in the system. These recommendations provided the basic orientation for the program of development that was undertaken.

In these cases, the approach made by the new official leaders was to discover the problems that were important to the staff and to begin by making any contribution they could to the solution of these problems.

In talking with the staff to learn about the program and the personnel involved, the new supervisor must be careful not to build up a caste system in the faculty. All persons should have equal access to the door of a new supervisor. If it becomes apparent that he is depending upon certain members of the staff for information and guidance, the teachers not included in this



inner circle will begin to form resistance groups to the program being evolved by the unofficial cabinet. This condition is particularly likely to arise if the stated functions of the persons to whom the new official leader turns for advice do not include leadership in portions of the program about which decisions are made.

One way to avoid the development of feeling that the advice of only a portion of the staff is sought is to make many decisions in an open conference. Thereby, the staff will have the oppor-

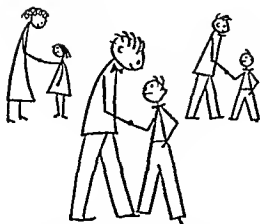
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tunity to see how the supervisor brings out all the evidence, encourages everyone to listen to all data and opinions, considers with the staff all the possible solutions suggested, and seeks consensus before a decision is reached. Even though such conferences are time-consuming, they will ultimately pay dividends and will be effective in building morale and saving time. The staff will acquire confidence in the way the official leader works and will develop a trust in the fairness of decisions that are made when they are not present.

Another important task of a new supervisor is to convince teachers that he knows that it is his job to release the talents of those with whom he works. He must let teachers know that he wants suggestions on steps he can take to remove hindrances to creative teaching. Procedures such as those used in Pasadena and Springfield are examples of ways in which official leaders can make known to teachers their desire to concentrate effort on removing teacher problems.

Where possible, action should be taken at once to relieve minor difficulties. In the Pasadena system, the report of the recommendations of the discussion groups sent to the teachers contained a check list that could be used to note the recommendations upon which action was taken. In this way each teacher could keep a record of the sincerity and effectiveness of the official leader. It is not a technique that can be recommended to administrators who are not going to implement the recommendations of the staff.

The official leader helps set the pattern of work in the organization. If the new supervisor wants members of the staff to be on the job on time and to work at a high level of efficiency, he must set that pattern himself from the time he begins a new job. If he is prompt, hard-working, and thorough, the staff will be the same. If he sets an example of coming to work early and not leaving before the day is over, the staff will assume the same responsibility. A new executive director was appointed in an organization in which tardiness and leaving the job early were a consistent pattern. The new official leader made it a



habit to get to work half an hour earlier than anyone else and to stay half an hour after the last person left. Without a word being spoken, the staff began to work a full day. The example was more forceful than anything the supervisor could have said.

As he enters a new job, the supervisor must avoid any change in his personality. New responsibility must not be allowed to interfere with his friendliness and relaxed quality. It is so easy to become overwhelmed by new duties and responsibilities that new formality, hurriedness, and hardness may begin to appear in the supervisor's manner.

One exception to being natural is being more careful about chance remarks. Comments of supervisors have much wider implication than remarks made by an ordinary member of the staff. Much humor in ordinary situations is at the expense of others. Belittling remarks are accompanied by a smile and they are accepted in the same spirit in which they are given. When such remarks are made by a supervisor, they have a far different implication. As a person steps into a supervisory role, he has a much greater effect on the future of his co-workers. Remarks made by the official leader may be misunderstood. Remarks that are made in jest may be taken seriously. Statements that are understood perfectly by everyone present in a given situation may cause much misunderstanding when they are repeated to persons who were not present. Care must be exercised to avoid the type of statement that will be misunderstood

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if it is repeated out of the context in which it was spoken. A remark made in good faith may be twisted by repeated tellings until it becomes a barbed threat by the time it reaches the person concerned. Persons in positions of responsibility must be constantly on their guard to be sure they say what they mean and that they do not depend upon inflection of the voice or upon gestures to convey the impression they wish.

What Loyalty Can Be Expected?

The new official leader must win acceptance and respect. He cannot demand loyalty to himself, even if he wants it.

A former college professor went into a job as the head of a department in a national organization. On the first day, he called the staff together and opened the meeting with the remark, "I expect all of you to be loyal to me." One of the members of the staff spoke up immediately, "I do not know whether or not I can be loyal to you." The college professor, taken aback by the response, asked why; the staff member replied that he would develop loyalty if he found the supervisor deserved it.

An industrial relations director, in discussing the problem of winning support of a staff, put it in another way. "Loyalty is a two-way proposition and a supervisor must be the one to demonstrate it first. Workers are loyal when the supervisor earns their loyalty by being loyal to them."

Lillian Smith, in *The Journey*, writes:

As totalitarianism increases—in a school or a country or a church—the use of the word loyalty increases. A strange and frightening word. The mob's word. The gang's word. A word people shout in unison—while honor and responsibility and integrity are words only an individual can speak, and act out.

How does one measure the quality of a man's relationship with a large entity such as church or school or government? It is an interesting fact, and one many of us have observed all our lives, that people demand loyalty of us only when they are doing something to us (or somebody else) of which we don't approve and cannot wholeheartedly participate in, and which

weakens our love and admiration. Let's admit it: *loyalty* is a verbal switch-blade used by little and big bosses to force us quickly to accept a questionable situation which our intelligence and conscience should reject.*

In the cooperative approach, loyalty to an individual official leader is not the quality desired. Teachers must develop loyalty to the values that they accept and loyalty to the program that emerges through the implementation of these values. Official leaders are not concerned over whether people develop a personal loyalty to them. *Staff members should be unfettered by personal loyalties that keep them from taking issue with official leaders when the leaders violate the values that the group is seeking.* Official leaders want, instead of loyalty, an acceptance as worth-while contributors to the development of a good program, and respect for their abilities and skills that make the school more effective. Acceptance and respect are built through the way the leader works. It is a long-time proposition.

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR BEGINNING SUPERVISORS

1. Strive for humility.
2. Make clear to staff a desire for help and a willingness to learn.
3. Define official leader's role as coordinator and resource person to help the staff.
4. Talk with predecessor about the program that is under way and the next steps as he sees them.
5. Meet the staff in an informal social situation as soon as possible.
6. Look for the strong features of the program and the staff members.
7. Continue existing procedures until they have been studied and their weaknesses have been determined.
8. Make change slowly on the basis of the staff evaluation.

*Cleveland: The World Publishing Company, 1954, pp. 223, 224.

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9. Talk with each person or a representative of each group about his (or the group's) work.
 10. Listen more than you talk.
 11. Start with the staff's problems.
 12. Keep an "open door" to all staff members.
 13. Make some early decisions in open conference.
 14. Set the work pattern the staff is to follow.
 15. Be natural.
 16. Beware of remarks, even in jest, that belittle a staff member.
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Chapter 4

How Can Staff Morale Be Built?

Groups grow in unity, strength, and effectiveness as individual members find in them satisfaction of their desires. In taking steps to exert leadership for program improvement through the group, the official leader must understand these desires and do all in his power to promote the type of group environment and operation that will fulfill them. He must build morale.

What Is Morale?

Morale is the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job. It may be high or low. A teacher may like his work and may believe that he is working with a fine group of people and in an excellent school system. Or he may distrust the administration, be dissatisfied with the amount of money he is receiving, and resent his fellow workers. Actual conditions do not count. The important element in morale is what the teacher believes and feels.

Morale is intangible; it cannot be seen or isolated. But it is possible to determine the quality of morale by careful observation of the way people act. Industry has found a positive correlation between low morale and a high rate of absenteeism and tardiness. Loafing, taking excessive time away from the task at hand, and constant bickering are signs of dissatisfaction with the job. Cheerfulness, promptness, enthusiasm, dependability, and cooperation are indications of high morale.

Morale affects the amount of work a person does. Low morale cuts down production. High morale increases it. If morale is

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high, a staff will do its best to promote effective learning. If morale is low, teachers will not live up to their potential ability and the school will operate at far less than its maximum efficiency. High morale is built by making sure that the job provides the satisfaction an individual wants from life.

What Do Teachers Want from a Job?

This lament of a teacher whose morale is low reveals some of the actions of supervisors that adversely affect teacher morale and the learning situation:

—When one in authority reaps vengeance because of petty grievances to the extent that even the school children suffer—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When a co-worker attempts to clarify an unjust accusation of a friend and is ordered to "stay in his own department"—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When unrest, suspicion, and insecurity have so infiltrated a system that even ambitious newcomers are skeptical—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When fear is imbedded in personnel by the loose usage of such words as insubordination, incompetency, and immorality—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When rumors of spies are prevalent throughout the system—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When the majority would work in harmony and cooperate for the benefit of all, were it not that discrimination, suspicion, and fear force them into hypocrisy—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When all personnel have to stop and think first of what's best for one's self rather than what's best for the child concerned—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When teachers are required to attend meetings outside their field "just for the looks of things"—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When "special services" are curtailed because of fear of lack of understanding—that's a hindrance to educational development!

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—When departments have to return to dated methods and even dated terminology in order to please administrators—that's a hindrance to educational development!

—When there is an atmosphere of unhappiness throughout the entire school personnel, which in turn affects the school children—that's a hindrance to educational development!

The opposite feeling about her job was demonstrated by a teacher who was offered a position paying 30 per cent more salary. She turned it down with the reply, "No, I would rather stay in my present position at a lower salary. There are so many satisfactions in my job that I don't want to leave it." Her principal had succeeded in creating the type of working conditions that gave the staff the feeling that the school was one of the best that could be found.

What makes a teacher satisfied with his job and his school? During a four-year investigation of this problem conducted by the writer, one thousand members of twenty-five discussion groups of graduate students studying supervision listed most frequently the following job satisfactions as the ones they wanted as teachers: *security and a comfortable living; pleasant working conditions; a sense of belonging; fair treatment; a sense of achievement and growth; recognition of contribution; participation in deciding policy; and opportunity to maintain self-respect.* Psychologists and sociologists studying the problem have arrived at very similar answers for workers in other fields.

If teacher morale is to be high, official leaders in schools must operate in ways that will enable staff members to obtain these satisfactions from their work.

What Can the Official Leader Do To Provide Job Satisfactions?

Teachers must know that the official leader is concerned about their reaction to their work. Evidence of the importance of this knowledge to workers is available in the famous Western Electric study of employee motivation reported by Roethlis-

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berger and Dickinson. Skilled assemblers were put into an experimental situation, and better employment conditions, such as better lights, more comfortable seats, rest periods, and free coffee, were added one by one. Production increased with each change. It looked as though the answer to increased production was constant improvement of working conditions. But when the benefits were taken away one by one, each change still brought increased production. The amount of take-home pay was actually decreased! One of the conclusions was that production increases when workers believe that management is concerned enough to try to find out how they feel.

But concern is not enough. Official leadership must take action to provide job satisfaction if school staffs are to have high morale. What can be done by the official leader to help teachers find the satisfactions they want in their jobs?

Security and a Comfortable Living

Teachers want security and a comfortable living. Comfort does not mean luxury, but teachers want to be able to maintain a standard of living that does not force them to pinch pennies. People want to be able to provide food, clothing, and shelter for their families, to feel free from financial worry, and to afford an occasional luxury.

The official leader should take an active part in attempts to secure adequate salaries and good working conditions for the staff. If counter-leadership is not to be built, the official leader must be at the front of the movements to meet basic teacher needs.

Supervisors have not always recognized their leadership responsibilities in this area, as the following case illustrates:

A salary scale meeting between a group of teachers and their supervisors was in progress. The main objective of the teachers' group was to raise the maximum salary, which was one of the lowest in the state. The spokesman for the teachers mentioned the fact that some of their best and most experienced teachers were leaving because their maximum was too low.

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The supervisor said that such a condition was good because it kept the payroll down. The spokesman stated that the teachers of this district were looking for a future here and would like to know what was in store for them. The supervisor then stated that if they didn't like it, they should look for a job in some other district that might suit them better.

In some situations, where superintendents and principals have taken no part in the teachers' fight for better salaries, the leadership of the staff has become a function performed by someone else. Teachers' associations have been formed from which official leaders were excluded and a division has been made between the official leader and his staff. In the worst situations, real antagonism has developed. It is useless to hope that real leadership can be exerted in curriculum development and program improvement by persons who have not been a part of the teachers' activities to secure better living conditions. Cooperation of the type described in this book is not something that can exist in one area and not in another. It cannot occur at all in situations in which official leadership is separated from the staff.

Where a break has occurred between teaching staffs and official leaders in schools, much of the blame must be charged to the official leadership. In some school situations, official leaders have conceived of their functions as helping to keep the cost of school operation low, even though it meant keeping teachers at a salary lower than that of service personnel in the building. In some systems the salary of official leaders is three times higher than the maximum the best-paid teacher in the system can obtain. Some supervisors have said that increasing teachers' salaries is the teachers' struggle and that official leadership should stand on the sidelines. A principal in a New York state high school once remarked, "Teachers should be first concerned about their contributions to the community and let the community take care of their needs. If a teacher makes sufficient contribution to the community he will not have to worry about a salary increase." Perhaps this statement is correct, but it is

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easy to guess the quality of morale in this man's staff. Any supervisor who does not work with his teachers in their demand for better living conditions decreases the possibility of his being accepted by the staff.

Channels for keeping teachers informed of progress made in improving working conditions must be kept open. It does little good for the supervisor to take action on teachers' problems unless they know of the work that he is doing and the extent of progress that is made. A supervisor at one of our large teacher-training institutions makes a practice at each staff meeting of telling the staff about the things that are being done to improve their salaries and working conditions. Unless this practice is overdone, it pays good dividends in building a feeling that someone is concerned about how staff members feel and is spending effort to help them. It builds the idea that the official leader considers the improvement of working conditions for his staff a major portion of his responsibility.

However, the official leader is on much more secure ground if he works with representatives of the staff in seeking better working conditions than if he attempts to act as an intermediary. As the sole representative he loses an opportunity to build joint responsibility, and if he fails he may be suspected of lack of effort or skill.

The problems with which an official leader must deal are both group and personal in nature. If an individual staff member asks for assistance in solving a problem and the supervisor ignores the request, the teacher very quickly comes to feel that the supervisor is really not concerned with making the teaching situation a happy one. Morale for that individual teacher takes a nosedive because the representative of the administration with whom he has most contact has not shown a helpful interest in his problem.

At times, a supervisor may find himself in a situation in which action at a level of higher authority has lowered morale. The Board of Education may have refused to examine the salary schedule with the representatives of the teachers' asso-

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ciation. The superintendent may have granted a higher percentage of raises for teachers in another building or he may have applied different standards for promotion. What does the supervisor do? Does he give unquestioning support to those with greater authority? Does he go to the person whose action has caused the loss of morale and explain the situation to him? Does he call the staff together and tell them that he feels as they do but he is powerless to do anything about it? Does he work out with the staff a proposal to make to the person with more authority? Does he seek ways to secure special advantage for the group with which he works?

Certainly the situation must be examined by the group involved. It will not be dissolved and forgotten by pretending that it does not exist. The reasons for the action and its satisfactory and unsatisfactory phases must be identified.

If the action cannot be rescinded (and most can't without deepening the difficulty), the persons whose morale has been impaired should have the opportunity to propose how such cases should be handled in the future. A conference in which individuals may express their opinion and in which the administrator may explain his action will usually end the matter. The first break is not too serious. Staffs are generous in overlooking a mistake. But if the official takes the advice and violates what the staff considers fair practice a second time, the situation will have reached the crisis stage, and the supervisor must declare that he stands with the group in which he hopes to exert leadership.

Security involves tenure, pension plans, group insurance, hospitalization, health insurance, cumulative sick leave, and credit unions. All these are the concern of official leadership that is attempting to work for high morale; supervisory time spent obtaining and organizing them is a contribution to improved teaching. In schools in which the administration is not taking the initiative in securing these benefits, other leadership is beginning to emerge.

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Pleasant Working Conditions

Teachers want a job with pleasant working conditions. For different people, the factors that make pleasant working conditions vary, but such qualities of the working environment as attractiveness, cleanliness, up-to-date equipment, provision for employee comfort, and support from the management appear to be universally desirable.

The appeal of attractive surroundings is clearly evident in the way people take lower pay to stay in positions where they can work in beautiful, comfortable locations. Receptionists are a good example. In many industries, girls in the offices work for less than they could get working on the assembly line. The environment does make a difference.

The preceding statements are not intended as suggestions for ways of hiring teachers for less money, but they are indicative of some of the things an official leader can do to make teaching more satisfying.

Use of a variety of colors in a school is one way to increase attractiveness, and more and more schools are being painted in many shades and hues. Teachers are being consulted about their preferences in color. Cost differences are small but teacher satisfactions are great.

Elimination of the model-room concept and allowing teachers to individualize their working environment represent another step. When teachers bring flowers, pictures, drapes, and wall hangings into the classroom, it loses its barren, impersonal look and becomes more nearly a situation in which the teacher, as well as the pupils, will be happy. When furniture is left flexible so that teachers can adjust it to suit the type



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of work being conducted, many of the frustrations of being continually hampered by an unsatisfactory furniture arrangement disappear.

When the school undertakes a beautification program that makes available more beautiful and usable terraces and patios, the appeal of the school to the teacher increases. Note the emphasis on "usable." Some satisfactions accrue from being able to drive by the well-landscaped school in which one works, but greater satisfaction comes from using the beautified areas.

Closely allied to attractiveness is cleanliness. Poor janitorial service will destroy much of the satisfaction of well-chosen color, design, and landscaping.

An important part of pleasant working conditions is provision for teacher comfort. Teachers need attractive rooms to which they can retire to rest and relax. Money spent in providing comfortable and attractive furnishings for teachers' rooms is returned many times in higher morale, increased enthusiasm for the job, and pride in the organization.

Pleasant working conditions also involve having an adequate supply of materials with which to work. If teachers are asked to teach a class with a reading range from levels of grade four to grade eleven (a typical class pattern) with reading materials prepared only for grade eight, frustration is to be expected. If teachers have no closet or filing cabinet in which to keep supplies and teaching materials, or no petty cash fund for the purchase of supplies whose need could not be predicted a year before when the budget was prepared, job satisfaction is lessened. The materials and tools must be up-to-date. Compare the attitude of the teacher who uses history books written fifteen years ago or transcribing equipment manufactured in the early thirties with the attitude of the teacher who has present-day equipment.

Another way to create a pleasant situation is to let teachers feel that the official leadership is backing them. The supervisor can manage to be present when teachers need help, and provide the necessary support that teachers need. For example, a

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new teacher may be having difficulty with the discipline in his class. When the situation comes to the attention of the principal, he may make a habit of dropping in on the class on routine errands. He need say nothing to the teacher about discipline or to the students about behavior, but he gives the teacher confidence by being available if assistance is needed. Of course, he must already have proved, through his work with the staff, that he is there to help rather than to obtain evidence to use in dismissal charges.

A supervisor must stand back of his teachers. If he does not, he is admitting his own failure as well as decreasing the morale of his staff. If he has selected the staff member, he is at fault because he has made a poor selection. If he has inherited the staff member, his responsibility has developed through his opportunity to provide in-service training. A supervisor should give teachers security by backing their judgments, even though upon particular occasions their judgments are in error.

But backing a decision is subject to misinterpretation. Some teachers feel that backing a decision means that a principal should take their decision and their interpretation of the situation without any question. They feel that he should refuse to hear the other side, that he should rely on their accuracy and understanding. In reality, this would not be backing the teacher's decision; it would be following blindly the lines of authority. Backing a teacher's decision means letting a teacher know that he has the leader's confidence, even though a mistake has been made. It means that the official leader will be willing to work through a situation with a teacher whether the teacher's decisions have been right or wrong. *It means sharing responsi-*



bility for achieving a successful outcome rather than throwing the weight of authority behind a wrong judgment. Teachers should have backing that means freedom from the fear that mistakes will jeopardize their position and status, not backing that will allow them to continue to make arbitrary decisions and then run to a principal for support.

A Sense of Belonging

Teachers want to feel that they belong to the group with which they work. Studies of work groups in industry have found that this desire is one of the most important in determining how a person produces. Desire to be accepted or to remain a part of the group is more powerful in conditioning the amount of work a person will do than is even his take-home pay. For example, a person working on a piece rate will slow down and decrease the amount of money earned in order to avoid the charge of rate-breaker by his fellows. Every normal person wants to belong. How can this satisfaction be provided in faculties?

New staff members can be made to feel welcome and can be helped to become acquainted. Specific suggestions of ways to do this are made in the section of this book on personnel administration.

Group spirit can be built by: increasing the number of social occasions on which the staff gets together; involving groups in committee work where they get to know each other well; keeping the staff informed about special contributions that individual members are making; having week-end retreats for program planning and social activities.

Persons can be helped to feel needed by: recognizing special contributions to the program the group is developing; letting people know they have been missed when they have been away; asking for help in conducting activities; emphasizing the value of a variety of talents and abilities in the staff; stressing the worth and importance of each individual. Never should slighting or derogatory remarks be made about the contribution

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of a staff member. Never should the supervisor imply that he would be happier to have another person supplant someone on the staff.

Joint projects, such as participation in an experimental study or beautification of the school grounds, increase each staff member's sense of belonging. As individuals achieve common purposes by planning together and assuming joint responsibility, their feeling of belonging grows.

A sense of belonging grows too as friendliness in the staff is encouraged. The official leader sets the tone. If he is relaxed and friendly, others will follow suit.

Fair Treatment

Teachers want to be treated fairly. They resent being asked to carry more than their share of the load or having someone get the advantage in salary or recognition.

This reaction is apparent in the statement of a new teacher in a New Jersey school:

Being a new teacher in the system, I expected to do some dirty work, but not all of it. The pets in this system never have an extra duty. The only thing you have to do around here to get out of work is to be a friend of the principal.

The state of this teacher's morale is easy to see. When the group believes that certain members are getting an advantage, group spirit disappears and morale is lowered. Teachers resent discrimination and begin to decrease their output when they think the official leadership is playing favorites.

As indicated in the quotation, the work load may be a source of dissatisfaction. Staff members may believe that some people do not have their full share of extracurricular activities or that some members of the group get all the creative jobs and are always in the spotlight. One way this reaction can be avoided is by submitting proposed schedules for group members to the total group for discussion before any official decision is made. In the group situation, an individual will not be as free to ask



for special privileges as he will on a person-to-person basis with the supervisor.

Salary is another area in which many staffs accuse the administration of unfairness. If there is no salary scale, with definite rates established by training and experience, which is applied to all teachers, suspicion will exist. When salaries are secret, the staff is distrustful toward the administration and toward each other. Equal pay for equal training and experience should be a basic part of a good personnel policy for a school. Establishing an elected faculty-welfare committee, with the power to hear grievances and recommend removal of inequalities, has proved to be an effective procedure for eliminating feelings of being treated unfairly.

A Sense of Achievement

Teachers want a *sense of achievement* in their work. They want to know that they are competent, that they are making a real contribution, that they are making progress, that they are growing in the job.

They want to *feel confident in their ability to do their job*. When they become fearful that the job is too much for them, that they are not able to do the work that is required, they lose effectiveness. Teachers who have been asked to do a type of teaching for which they have not been prepared illustrate this point. They are dissatisfied. Homeroom teachers in many high schools are a good example. They hate homeroom duty because

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they are not sure what should happen in a homeroom and thus lack the feeling of competency that they have in their regular subject-matter classes.

If staff members are to have satisfaction through a feeling of competency, the school must have a strong program of in-service training that prepares for the new tasks that emerge through program improvement. Official leaders cannot assume that training institutions provide teachers with all the skills they will ever need.

Teachers want to feel that they are making a real contribution to society through their job. Although many people seem to lack this drive, it is a real one. The difference in the behavior of people seems to lie in their different interpretations of society. The broader the concept of society an individual has, the more social-minded he is in his desires to make a contribution to the welfare of others. Teaching offers this satisfaction as much as any other job, perhaps more, if the official leader helps the staff focus its attention on meeting the needs of individual boys and girls and ways of improving living in the community.

Teachers want to feel a sense of progress in their work. They are frustrated when they do not see the results of their efforts. Supervisors can help provide this satisfaction by assisting in the development of a good evaluation program—not a program based on the supervisor's rating of the teacher, but one that gives the teacher a chance to see how much growth his pupils have made. If, in addition, teachers are encouraged to make studies of individual pupils and to maintain contact with them after they have left the school, the pupils' development will give the teacher evidence of the success of his teaching.

Teachers want to feel that they are growing. They avoid dead-end jobs or positions that have them going through the same routine day after day without any opportunity to learn new procedures or skill. They want to engage in creative activities that increase their knowledge and ability.

Teachers recognize three types of growth. They may see that they are becoming better teachers, that the program is improv-



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ing, or that they have an opportunity to move into a job that seems more important to them. Whenever persons get into a job in which they see no opportunity for growth or future advancement, they are tempted to do no more than meets the minimum requirements.

Supervisors have a responsibility for helping teachers discover ways to continue to grow.

Miss X has been a good junior high school teacher in the same system for about twenty years. In that time she has taken an active part in the development of the school program. All her colleagues agree that she has been a valuable staff member.

About two years ago, however, Miss X began to give the impression that she was "bored." She had reached the peak on the salary schedule and did not see any possibility of promotion.

The department head noticed the loss of interest and sought a remedy. An opportunity presented itself when the school system was invited to take part in an experimental project with a nearby university. In spite of the fact that a number of major adjustments were necessary, Miss X was released temporarily from her classroom duties and permitted to go to the university. Here she had the opportunity to meet nationally known figures in the field of education and to work closely with them. An occasional telephone call from the supervisor convinced Miss X that he was keenly interested in what she was doing. Miss X responded by inviting the supervisor to visit her at the university to see at first hand what the group was doing. Later the supervisor made it possible for Miss X to explain to the other members of the department just what she was doing. She did a very fine job, was commended by the administrative officers of the school system.

Miss X has come back into the classroom eagerly trying out some of the ideas she and the others developed during her "leave."

Obviously, an in-service training program is an essential in this aspect of morale building, but it must be supplemented by a promotion policy which insures that teachers are considered for new opportunities that develop. *A supervisor should never*

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stand in the way of an employee's advancement. In fact, he will build morale in his group if he aids the members of the staff to obtain better jobs. His staff will then become known as a stepping stone to better positions, and ambitious, hardworking people will seek to get into it. Although a supervisor who works for the promotion of his people breaks in many new people, he can be sure that the type of person he gets is of high quality and that no member of the staff is loafing because he feels that he can go no further.

When opportunities for promotion occur within the staff, the supervisor should, if possible, make the promotion from within the group. To have someone brought in from the outside to fill a coveted position is harmful to morale. If leadership has been widely developed, much good human material will be available locally. Promotion should be on merit, and all the members of the staff should know the basis of the promotion.

A Feeling of Importance

Teachers want to *feel important* in their job. A director of industrial relations states, "Almost everybody wants to be somebody and someone a little better than any other body." Some men lose their efficiency when they are moved from a private office into an open office space. Just having a separate office serves to build up the sense of feeling important to such an extent that the quality of work improves. Of course, feelings of importance can be built in other and more significant ways.

The *desire for recognition* is another form of the desire to feel important. One of the reasons people work is to obtain recognition—recognition from supervisors, from fellow staff members, and from the community in which they live. A job gives greater satisfaction when these three types of recognition go with it. If there is a choice between jobs with different salaries, and if the lower amount is enough to supply security and comfort, most people will choose the lower-paying job if it carries enough prestige and recognition. People want others to recognize that the work they are doing is making a real con-

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tribution to the welfare of the group. A supervisor can make jobs seem more valuable by recognizing good work when he sees it, by keeping other teachers informed of significant activities being conducted by each teacher, and by keeping the community informed of the good teaching in the system. If a supervisor wants teachers to have real job satisfaction, he must let them know that he has confidence in them and respects the work they are doing. He

need not be afraid of spoiling them. Few teachers get too many compliments. In fact, for most teachers it is a red-letter day when they receive even one compliment for good teaching. In a group of sixty above-average experienced teachers, less than ten could recall receiving even one compliment from their supervisors or administrators during the past three years.

Praise is an important form of stimulation. It has been discredited in some situations because it has become an artificial type of stimulant. Supervisors have used it to manipulate people. If praise is sincere, is given with discrimination, and comes wholeheartedly and ungrudgingly from the official leader, it can provide real job satisfaction. It is one indication of recognition that all of us want.

A supervisor can praise teachers by describing the work they are doing in staff meetings or through faculty bulletins. Names do not even have to be mentioned. The simple act of relating the work a teacher is doing indicates the respect the official leader holds for that work.

Descriptions serve two purposes. They give needed recognition to the staff member who is carrying on the work and they provide good in-service experience by indirectly suggesting to other teachers activities they might try.

Equally important is the recognition that teachers give each other. The official leader will want to encourage the types of activities through which teachers can gain recognition from

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their fellows. The sharing of good ideas may be carried on as well by a committee as by the supervisor. Recognition lunches, send-off parties for someone going to a workshop, and opportunities to report to the staff are ways in which the staff can recognize each other.

Confidence and respect for teachers, a form of recognition, can be shown in many ways. One way is to ask the teacher to assist in carrying on a special project the school is undertaking or to represent the school in planning a joint undertaking with a community agency or another school. Another way is to accept the teacher's judgment concerning the classroom situation. In the discussion of a class period that the supervisor has seen the teacher conduct, the supervisor can demonstrate his confidence by respecting the teacher's analysis of the situation. If he says point-blank, "You are completely wrong. You should have assigned the lesson with specific page references," the supervisor is displaying a lack of faith in the teacher's ability. He is destroying the teacher's confidence in his teaching techniques or his respect for the supervisor. A vote of confidence is a strong motivation to continue the good work being done. No one wants to lose the confidence that people have in him. Persons tend to live up to the expectations that individuals they respect have for them.

Teachers like a situation in which their opinion is accepted. One of the best forms of recognition that any person can receive is to have others listen carefully to his point of view. A person is even more satisfied when his opinion is adopted and put into action. Even though his name is not attached to the action, he has the satisfaction of knowing that it is considered sufficiently good to be used. As official leaders help create situations where people think together, this satisfaction is fostered.

Another form of recognition of the opinion of teachers is consultation before action is taken. Consultation does two things. It lets the teacher know that his feelings and reactions are important, and it implies that from the teacher's opinions will come some suggestions for ways of improving the action.

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Giving credit for outstanding work should extend beyond the confines of the faculty. Special effort should be made to inform the community of the contributions that groups of teachers and individual teachers are making. School news releases should from time to time contain descriptions of projects being carried on by teachers and their classes. When a school is asked to send a speaker to community clubs, a teacher who is making an unusual contribution should be asked to describe the activities of his class. In this way, community thinking will be kept abreast of school development and teachers will feel that their extra efforts are appreciated. If the community can see the real value they are getting from the service of teachers, they will not hesitate to support the school program and increase the budgets for salaries.

A. Part in Policy Formulation

Teachers want to feel that they have a part in controlling their destiny. Jobs give greater satisfaction to a person if they give him opportunity to take part in forming the policies that govern him. Most persons find democratic living more desirable than living in a totalitarian state because they feel that they can make a change in policy if they do not like the present one. Some union representatives have insisted on having an opportunity to participate in determining company policy and in planning company-wide programs rather than on an increase in wages. The demand for participation in policy-forming is part of a basic drive for independence, freedom of action, and the acquisition of a feeling of importance. Principals can give teachers more satisfaction from their job by encouraging them to participate in policy-forming committees.

As people feel that they have a part in determining policy, they gain two types of satisfactions. They know that they are important, because they have a voice in decisions. They obtain recognition, because their interests are considered by the total group. In addition, they have a sense of purpose and self-direction. When goals are established by the group, the mem-

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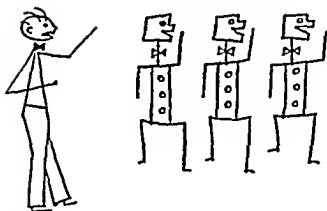
bers feel a responsibility for them and are concerned about achieving them. If the supervisor uses these goals as the basis for his executive decisions, he is on firm ground. The staff recognizes that his personal wishes are not the dictating factors in the situation. They know that the supervisor is representing them in taking administrative steps that lead toward the goals they have formulated.

When policy that affects the staff is made by superior authority outside the local school unit, the official leader can promote high morale by keeping the staff informed. Then staff members have a chance to make adjustments to the new policy before action is taken. They can decide what sort of protest they wish to make if they do not agree with the policy, or what will be the best way of implementing the policy in their local situation if they do agree with it. Keeping a staff informed of changes of policy enables the staff to adapt individual plans to the changes and makes it possible for the official leader to plan with his staff the ways the new policy will be put into action. It prevents a disconcerting surprise when customary routines are interrupted.

Maintain Self-Respect

To give full satisfaction, a job must allow people to maintain their feeling of self-respect. To respect one's self involves having a feeling of equality with those working with us. People cannot maintain their self-respect if they are constantly made to feel that they are inferior. They cannot retain self-respect if they are placed in the position of being a "yes man." They want a position in which they can feel they are working with rather than working for someone else. A supervisor who gives his staff members the impression that they are robots carrying out the orders of a more intelligent being breaks down the morale of the staff.

Another way persons develop self-respect on a job is through the way instructions are given. If they are ordered to perform a certain task, they lose their self-respect. They are given slave



status. If they plan with their official leader how a job is to be done, they retain a feeling of equality. For the supervisor, this means that job assignments should come out of joint planning, and that individual instructions for the carrying out of a particular function should come about through a joint planning conference. As people mature and become more self-directing, the instructions that are given should cover a much greater span of time. Persons who must receive instructions frequently are less self-directing and thus less in the position of co-workers.

A flexible work program also makes the teacher feel that he is a co-worker. If all deadlines are established by the official leader and if no provision is made for adjustment of individual cases and needs, the boss relationship is made very clear. If, however, due dates are established jointly with a consideration of the requirements of the situation, and if variation in terms of circumstances are possible, the teacher feels that he is working on a status of equality with the supervisor. He can have a greater feeling of self-direction and thus have greater self-respect.

A supervisor can judge his own actions by asking himself the question, "Will this action make the teacher look smaller in the eyes of his fellows or his students?" If the answer to this question is "Yes," the supervisor will do well to refrain. George Halsey, in his book *Supervising People*, tells of the man who always had a story a little bit better than the story that had

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been told. If someone had had a narrow escape from death, this man had had a more harrowing experience, and he told it. If someone had a very humorous story about a traveling salesman, this man had heard a more recent one. Suddenly he awoke to the fact that he was not getting the type of reaction he wanted by always topping the other person's story. He was not building the frame of mind that led to the consideration of his point of view. He was making other people feel insecure when they were with him. People build defenses against those who make them feel inferior.

The official leader's remarks should build other people's prestige rather than decrease it. This generalization applies to relationships with pupils as well as with teachers. If, in a situation in which a teacher and pupil have come in conflict, the supervisor takes action that causes the pupil to lose self-respect, the outcome of the situation will be harmful. Taking advantage of a pupil to build up teacher status destroys the respect of both teacher and pupil. Obviously, the pupil cannot continue to feel secure in a situation in which he sees his rights disregarded and his status abused. He can no longer trust the official leader of the school. He can only seek protection against further encroachment upon his personality. The teacher may feel satisfaction for the moment, and may believe that the supervisor is backing him, but as he considers the situation further he will see that he is on shaky ground. If the supervisor will take advantage of one person in order to build the status of another, the teacher may be the *one* in the position discriminated against in a future conflict in which he is the person of



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lesser status. *An official leader must operate in such a way that all persons are respected and given equal consideration if only one is to feel secure in working with him.*

If morale is to be high in a staff, rules should be kept at a minimum. One of the evidences of maturity is self-direction, and teachers want to feel that they have professional status and maturity. When a principal lists many small rules to govern teacher conduct, the impression is given that he doubts the professional quality of his teachers and their ability to make intelligent decisions concerning the way teachers should behave. Some rules are necessary, but they should be statements of guiding principles rather than specific instructions. If the rules that operate are drawn up by a committee of the staff, the tension between the official leader and the supervised is decreased.

Teachers want to be able to maintain their self-respect in their relationships in the community. One of the chief sources of dissatisfaction is the restrictions on the personal life of the teachers. During a shortage of teachers, the communities in which the greatest number of restrictions are enforced are the ones that have the most difficulty in finding teachers. *Teachers, like other people, want the right to lead their own lives.* A principal will build job satisfaction by insisting to the Board of Education and to the community that his teachers not have special restrictions imposed upon them because of their profession.

Evidence of the importance to teachers of equal status in the community is the objection that teachers raise to signing special loyalty oaths. They are willing to declare their allegiance to their country, but they resent being regarded as suspect or being asked to do more to assert the quality of their citizenship than other community members.

How Can Staff Morale Be Sampled?

Teaching should come as near as any vocation to giving all the job satisfactions a person wants. For the most part, teaching

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is done in good working conditions. It gives the teacher a chance to work in many new types of situations and with many stimulating personal contacts. It carries with it a chance to try new things and a feeling that the teacher is making a worthwhile contribution to society. It gives many opportunities for recognition and for feeling needed.

But a supervisor can never take morale for granted. He needs to make frequent spot checks to determine the feelings of various staff members. If he has the confidence of his staff, he can ask individuals for suggestions on ways in which the job can be made more satisfying. Reaction of staff members to this question will give clues to the type of procedures and actions that are producing dissatisfaction, uncertainty, and fear.

One measure of teacher morale is how freely staff members bring their tensions and problems out into the open at faculty meetings. A positive check on teacher tension is provided by their relationships with students. If a principal finds that students are not sure of their relationships with their teachers, it is time for him to investigate his own relationship with the teachers. Tense, unhappy, insecure teachers cannot avoid releasing their pent-up emotions in their relationships with children, thereby creating tension in the classroom.

All the indications of low morale listed earlier in the chapter—absenteeism, tardiness, high turn-over—are types of behavior that the official leader will want to watch to ascertain the state of morale in the staff. If a teacher welfare committee is established, teachers will have a way of registering their dissatisfactions and official leadership will have a constant guide to the places where effort in promoting job satisfaction is needed.

Morale is a delicate plant that grows slowly in an atmosphere of mutual respect. It can be severely stunted by one false action. When a single personality is disregarded, the feeling of security and confidence within the total group breaks down, and each member feels, with justification, that if one person has not received fair treatment, it may be his turn next. The super-

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visor must constantly judge actions and decisions by the effect they will have on the way teachers feel about their job.

High morale is not obtained easily, but it is the foundation of a good school program. The supervisor must constantly demonstrate that teacher morale is one of his major concerns.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Take the lead in working for good salaries and working conditions for the staff?
2. Keep the staff informed of actions that are being taken in their behalf?
3. Work to secure attractive classrooms and school grounds?
4. Provide tastefully decorated, comfortable teachers' rooms?
5. Try to keep all teachers well supplied with up-to-date materials?
6. Help teachers work out difficulties with pupils, parents, or other teachers?
7. Work with a teacher in solving a problem caused by his mistake?
8. Work to increase the friendliness and group feeling in the staff?
9. Respect and accept the special contribution of each staff member?
10. Submit proposed individual schedules to the total group involved or to a schedule committee for suggested improvements before issuing them officially?
11. Recommend the organization of a teacher welfare committee?
12. Establish in-service training to build necessary skills for next steps in program improvement?
13. Promote from within the ranks where possible?

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14. Let people know when they are doing a good job?
 15. Show confidence in the ability of the staff?
 16. Respect teachers' analysis of the teaching they are doing?
 17. Listen to the opinions and proposals of all staff members?
 18. Consult with teachers before action is taken that will affect them?
 19. Widen the participation in policy formation?
 20. Keep the staff informed of policy changes originating outside the unit that will affect them?
 21. Plan work with the staff instead of issuing directives on how it should be done?
 22. Give teachers a part in establishing deadlines for work?
 23. Avoid action that will make the teacher feel less important or capable?
 24. Disregard status lines in helping members of the school group to settle an argument?
 25. Decrease as far as possible the regulations governing faculty action?
 26. Seek to decrease school regulations affecting private lives of teachers?
 27. Check frequently on indices of teacher morale?
 28. Plan with staff members the way a job assignment is to be executed?
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Chapter 5

How Can Leadership in the Group Be Developed?

If it is recognized that leadership is any contribution to the establishment and achievement of goals by a group, it is easy to see that official leadership must be concerned with the fullest possible cultivation of the leadership potential of each member of the group. Merely apprenticing someone for future status leadership is too limited a concept of the responsibility for developing leadership. It restricts the possible accomplishments of the group.

The development of leadership in group members involves getting them to assume responsibility for the planning and development of a program; it also involves creating the type of atmosphere in which they are encouraged and stimulated to exert their full native ability. *Through helping staff members achieve leadership, the supervisor releases the full power of the group.* Each member makes his maximum contribution as he has the opportunity to lead, and he grows in strength and ability through the experience.

In a school faculty, leadership is fostered by: creating a permissive atmosphere in which the individual feels secure enough to make his unique contribution; offering an opportunity to assume responsibility in program development; and encouraging the full use of creative ability in the teaching process.

How Can Willingness To Lead Be Encouraged?

Why aren't teachers willing to exert their full leadership? In light of what has been said already about people wanting rec-

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ognition and the feeling that they are making a contribution, it would seem that everyone would want to lead in any way he could.

Some teachers are willing to lead, others are not. Much of the difference lies in the type of supervision they have had. If their official leaders have been reluctant to delegate authority and have handed out definite instructions, only the unusual teachers will volunteer to assume responsibility. After teachers have been dominated and directed for years, they cannot be expected to rush to assume leadership. Any new supervisor will have to work with them a long time before they will lose their suspicions, feel that the program is theirs as well as the supervisor's, and become willing to exert initiative. If, however, teachers have experienced stimulating official leadership that has worked for teacher leadership, they will exert leadership. Everyone reacts to new situations in terms of his past experiences.



Official leaders must begin with people where they are. Supervisors must accept teachers for what they are without condemning them for behavior that is the result of their past experiences. Supervisors must attempt to create the type of environment that makes it possible and desirable for people to assume leadership.

Leadership involves pioneering. As people venture into the unknown, the chance of making errors is greatly increased. If supervisors want to encourage leadership, they must create freedom to work out solutions to new problems while they establish security in the more familiar environment. If a supervisor has a faculty that has never taken a field trip, and he wants it to begin to utilize community resources, he must make clear his backing of field trips, help arrange schedules and transportation that make trips possible, and then give teachers freedom to experiment. He must not force acceptance of his pattern of procedure or his judgment of results.

How Can a Permissive Atmosphere Be Achieved?

The first prerequisite for increasing willingness to risk making a mistake is the establishment of a permissive atmosphere in which mistakes are not penalized. Supervisors must recognize that teachers incur some insecurity through creative efforts; that some mistakes will occur; that advances and new learning come about as the result of mistakes as well as successes; that some sense of order may appear to be lost while new methods are being tested. They must understand that teachers who are attempting creative work need a greater security in their relationship with their supervisors. People are less willing to take chances when there is a possibility of being punished for mistakes made. The supervisor must let the staff know that he understands that the superior teacher may make mistakes in attempting procedures for which no pattern has been set.

The supervisor must recognize and respect the need of staff members for security if he wants to foster leadership. He must eliminate as far as he can the possibility of his making reprisals. As long as the leader exerts power over promotion and salary, the teacher will hesitate to place his ideas on an equal basis with the supervisor's ideas. Some schools have attempted to eliminate fear by creating consultants or resource teachers who assist but do not rate, by establishing a salary scale with automatic salary increases, and by holding workshops and camps where teachers and supervisors work together as equal members of a work team. All such efforts should be judged by their effect on the creation of a school environment in which teachers feel secure to make an error in judgment or to differ in opinion with the official leader.

The supervisor must avoid stereotypes of what constitutes worth-while contributions and good teaching. Otherwise, teachers learn not to assume leadership, because the person who does assume responsibility and carries it out in a way that differs from the supervisor's original idea is reprimanded.

How Can Leadership in the Group Be Developed?

Teachers in such a situation quickly become afraid to "stick out their necks." They avoid any type of work that leads them beyond their customary routine into activities in which they are unsure of the supervisor's desires or their ability to meet them. As teachers find that the easiest way for them to be happy and safe from criticism is to stick to the regular job, it becomes more and more difficult to get them to assume leadership. A supervisor may repress growth without realizing it.

After twenty years of teaching, a junior-high-school English teacher had decided that teaching grammar for the full period each day was not the most effective teaching procedure or the most enjoyable. She searched and found a magazine published in London for English adolescents. She subscribed to the magazine, using money from her salary. The pupils enjoyed it. They took copies home and their parents approved and commented favorably to the teacher.

One day the principal came by and saw it. Reacting in light of public opinion in an area that opposed UNESCO, he commented, without any attempt to discover the facts, "I'd get rid of those magazines. Someone might think we are teaching UNESCO." The teacher, who had begun to venture after twenty years of conforming, put the magazines back in the closet.

Opposition must be accepted and recognized as a contribution to group growth and program improvement if leadership is not to be confined to areas the official leader has already explored and described.

It is easier to accept the philosophic concept of valuing opposition than it is to practice it. It is difficult to keep from ascribing unworthy motives to the person who opposes us. We tend to believe that he is seeking power or protecting a vested interest. It is more difficult to assume that he is as intellectually honest as we are or that he is acting because of a deep commitment to fundamental values.

It is especially hard to give due credit to the opposition when it adopts tactics that seem unfair. Such occasions arise when: a certain group always opposes the leader; it seems apparent

that there has been a caucus before the meeting and that a plan has been developed for blocking consideration of an idea or for railroading one through; argument descends to name-calling and appeals to emotion. At such times, the official leader finds himself torn between the desire to utilize the contribution of all, and his responsibility to employers and the staff to conduct the business of the school in such a manner that a unified, consistent program is developed. Sooner or later, the official leader may have to ask the opposition to examine its methods. But he should recognize such a procedure as an act of desperation to be used after all his techniques for achieving group integration have been exhausted.

It must be added that people will assume leadership in a situation where morale is high. All the conditions described in the preceding chapter must exist in the school if the full leadership ability of the staff is to be released.

How Can Authority Be Shared?

Getting people to assume responsibility does not mean convincing someone to do the thing the supervisor wants done. Acceptance of the manipulation interpretation leads supervisors to seek better techniques of coaxing or coercion. A more fruitful approach is to assume that getting people to assume responsibility means giving them a part in determining the goals and method of operation. If supervisors accept this viewpoint, half the battle of securing the acceptance of responsibility is won.

The administrator seeking to develop more effective ways of using his authority can share it. As he gives others a part in determining how authority shall be used and who shall use it, he is sharing his authority and responsibility concurrently. He does not relinquish either authority or responsibility, but the group acquires both by accepting the invitation to participate in decision-making. Of course, the official leader is responsible to those who delegated authority to him for the way it is used. But so are the other members of the staff after they have

How Can Leadership in the Group Be Developed?

shared it. They become co-advocates and defenders, if necessary, of the steps taken. The official leader is never alone against the Board or the community if he has shared his authority.

SHARED DECISIONS • CO-ADVOCATES



Sharing authority is not as familiar a concept as delegating authority. The right and necessity for an official leader to delegate authority are never questioned, but supervisors have not been equally clear about the possibility or results of shared authority.

The official leader's decision on whether to delegate certain authority to certain staff members or to share total authority with the total staff must be made on the basis of how the work of the staff will be affected. Sharing authority is the most effective way of promoting cooperation. The autocratic leader can secure cooperation in carrying out his goals by using threats and rewards. If people are afraid or if they wish to obtain what the leader has to offer, they will surrender their will to his and will cooperate in doing what he wants. If a leader chooses to operate democratically, his major source of control is sharing his authority to make decisions. He cannot force people to join in making decisions. If they are not willing to share voluntarily in the decision-making, he will be forced to use the same techniques of control that the authoritarian leader uses. If, however, the members of the group see value in sharing decisions

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and understand that in the process their purposes will be considered and utilized, their participation is voluntary and results in their assuming responsibility in the execution of the decisions. Cooperation is voluntary because the individual's purposes are included in the determination of the action to be undertaken.

From the point of view of those who have granted the authority, the official leader is responsible. He cannot escape this responsibility. If he delegates authority, he is performing an administrative action. If he shares authority, he is using an administrative procedure. As far as the persons above are concerned, the official leader has full authority and responsibility. He can exercise the authority as he sees best. He is free to share authority if he feels it will get better results.

From the point of view of the staff working beneath the official leader in the line of authority, there is a vast difference between delegated and shared authority. Persons to whom authority is delegated assume responsibility for its use *but not for the decision on how it will be used*. They are responsible to their official leader but not to anyone beyond him. The arguments of the lesser Nazis in the trials following World War II illustrate the refusal to accept responsibility for decisions concerning the use of authority. Persons with whom authority is shared assume responsibility for decisions concerning its use as well as for the execution of decisions. All persons who accept a share in deciding how authority will be used become responsible to each other and to persons outside the group for the utilization of the authority.

The basic way of getting people to cooperate is to give them a share in deciding how the authority allocated to the group and its official leader will be used. As members of a group make decisions on how authority is to be used, they inescapably acquire a sense of responsibility for the success of their decision. Shared authority and shared responsibility are indivisible.

Actually, the sharing of authority is the only device that a democratic leader has for control of a group. If he operates in an authoritarian way, he can control the group by force or by

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taking away privileges. If he does not use his authority, the group may disintegrate.

Individuals come together because they have common purposes and common interests. When these no longer exist and individuals begin to see that their vested interest will be infringed upon by the decisions of the group, they withdraw and form a new group unless there is the authority to hold the group together. If the group is willing to live by the agreements reached, the decision-making process becomes the control and authority is spread throughout the group. All become responsible for the decision and for its enforcement.

But shared authority is contingent on the good faith of the members of the group. Unless individuals are willing to live up to an agreement, the official leader has the responsibility to enforce the decisions of the group. He cannot avoid it.

For effective group operation the official leader must take steps that make clear his willingness to share authority and that keep the lines of communication open so that all who wish may participate in the formulating of policies that he has the authority to make. But he must also assume the responsibility for exercising the authority that forces individual members to live up to group agreements. In any case, he will continue to believe in people and work for shared responsibility.

How Can People Be Encouraged To Assume Responsibility?

The supervisor gets others to assume responsibility by asking them to do something *with him* rather than *for him*.

During one of the first faculty meetings of the year, the junior-high principal stood before the group and said, "If you'll look at the agenda you'll see that the next topic concerns a case report. I am going to ask each one of you to turn in a case history of one of your pupils. It makes no difference whom you choose; nor am I going to tell you how long it should be. Use your own judgment. I feel that it will be good experience for all of you."

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but will be of particular benefit to the new teachers. You will turn them in by the first of April. If there is no further business, the meeting will adjourn."

Later the same day, the principal was asked by one of the teachers when there would be another meeting for further explanation of the case history and she was informed that there shouldn't be any need for more discussion. When she suggested that case histories aren't just whipped up out of old egg crates and that possibly some members of the staff had never had any experience in interviewing parents and delving into some of the other procedures that might be considered necessary in the preparation of a case history, she was told that interviews wouldn't be necessary at all. "What is expected is just an account of some of the things that have been noticed in the regular classroom or hallway. You know, how he gets along with his classmates, and whatnot!" When asked if what he had meant was an anecdotal record rather than a case history, he answered in the affirmative. The teacher suggested that it might be well to get it straightened out in the next meeting in order that all of the faculty might have a clear understanding. Assurance was given that the task would be made clear to all. It was never mentioned again.

Spring came, and the last of May. Another faculty meeting was in session. The question was asked, "How many of you have your case histories ready to turn in? I have received only two so far, and, as I recall, they were to be ready by the first of April." Three of the thirty faculty members raised their hands. The principal looked over the group and said, "Perhaps we'd better have some discussion. How about you, Mr. —?" Down the lines he went, with most of the answers in the negative—some had started theirs last fall, some had forgotten about them, some had been waiting for further clarification.

"And now you, Mrs. —?" The response was that an anecdotal record had been kept, that it consisted of seven typewritten pages, and that the author had no intention of turning it in under threat.

"Meaning what?" she was asked.

"Meaning that I have learned that you have made the statement that unless the so-called case histories are turned in, the

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final checks will be held out. I'll cooperate in any way that I can in the school. You know that. But I won't be forced nor intimidated, period. It will not be turned in under the circumstances."

"You've been misinformed, Mrs. —. I have never threatened to hold out the final checks. I'd like to know who started such a story."

In the back of the room another teacher stood up. "When I turned mine in last Tuesday morning you said, 'That's fine, Miss C—. The others had better get theirs in if they expect to get their final checks.'"

"You must have misunderstood me, Miss —. I would never say such a thing."

One of the men arose. "You may have forgotten, but I was in the office when you made just that statement to Miss —."

This principal had failed to get the staff to assume the responsibility and had alienated his most ardent supporters.

Members of a staff have many ways of resisting an activity in which they do not believe. Passive resistance, such as forgetting, missing the point, coming late, getting simple arrangements confused, postponing, overemphasis on details, over-submissiveness and glorification of the past, is not always recognized by official leaders. Active resistance, such as disagreement, counter-proposal, or refusal, is sometimes considered as insubordination.

If the official leader is to be a real leader, he must: recognize manifestations of resistance; be able to facilitate and tolerate expressions of resentment, disappointment, and antagonism without becoming defensive; hear valid criticism; be sensitive to cues concerning the real dissatisfaction underlying negative expression; be willing to discard practices that do not contribute to group purposes; and be able to help groups find common purposes. In brief, he must be willing to accept the fact that another person's purposes and ways of reacting are as natural and as valid as his own.

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that policy. They have used their intelligence to establish the goal and the procedures, and their judgment is at stake. They must support their judgment. When the judgment has been made by the supervisor, however, only he has a real responsibility for it and teachers cannot be expected to go out of their way to make sure that the judgments in which they have no vested interest are proved worth while.

As supervisors gain a full understanding that assumption of responsibility comes with having a part in policy-making, they realize that they must create conditions that make such participation possible. If the supervisor assumes from the beginning that he is a member of a group working for the improvement of the school in which the total staff has a responsibility and vested interest, he can hope to bring teachers to the point where they are willing to assume responsibility.

Acceptance of responsibility by the staff members, in an authoritarian sense, means accepting and executing assignments. In the context of shared leadership, this acceptance is enlarged to include responsibility for contributing ideas, helping the group to reach basic agreements, joining in the establishment of plans, and accepting and executing assignments that grow out of group planning.

First, a supervisor must help the group identify the problems that it feels are important. A principal of a South Carolina high school usually started his pre-school conferences by listing the problems that he felt were important for the staff to work on. He changed procedures by sending a letter to each member of the staff prior to the pre-school conference, asking the staff member to indicate the problems he felt should be studied in the conference that year. From responses to this inquiry, he drew up a list of problems which was presented to the staff at the opening of pre-school conference. The procedures used by this principal placed the emphasis on identifying the problems of the staff, rather than telling the staff to cooperate in the solution of the supervisor's problems.

As mentioned earlier, teachers who have not previously had

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a part in planning do not move easily into faculty planning sessions. In the beginning, the supervisor can only offer opportunities to participate in the planning. When certain members of the staff accept these opportunities, he must live up to their expectations of the way in which a staff can participate in planning. When this is done, the staff will gradually become willing to assume a part in policy-making.

The official leader should seek faculty consensus in reaching solutions to school problems. Experience in group operation indicates that groups cooperate better if decisions are made by consensus rather than by simple majority. When decisions are made by 51 per cent of the staff voting in favor and 49 per cent of the staff still voting against, the probability is great that there will be little real enthusiasm in the total staff for the program being inaugurated. If, however, decisions are held off, and if no final commitments made until at least 80 to 90 per cent of the staff are firmly convinced that the proposed steps should be taken, it is likely that unanimous support will develop. Procedures for reaching group consensus are discussed under skills in group process.

Where authority is shared, the responsibility-assuming situation is a portion of the planning session in which all who are to have a part are included. The work to be done is analyzed, the specific tasks are listed, and agreement is sought on who should assume the various responsibilities. If decisions concerning responsibilities are made on the basis of an analysis of the work to be done, the allocation of responsibilities becomes a part of the solution of the problem.

The supervisor will want to encourage the group to establish criteria to guide them in the organization of a program and the assignment of tasks. Which staff member would prefer this job? Members should have the opportunity to volunteer or to suggest responsibilities they would like to have. People work harder and with less difficulty on the tasks they like. Which person has the special skills needed? Which person will be least overloaded by the new assignment? Staff members should be

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given an opportunity to talk among themselves and to decide on specific responsibilities.

Some members of the staff may not have begun to assume leadership. It may be necessary for members of the group to say to them, "The other members of the group are carrying many responsibilities and their load is very heavy at the present time; will you accept this particular job?" Group pressure, which results from group planning, is exerted on the individual who is not carrying his share of the load. Group pressure is much stronger than the pressure a supervisor can bring on a member of the group to carry out his responsibilities. The person who does not want to assume more work can say "No" to a supervisor more easily than he can to a group of his fellows.

It is important to get a program organized so that responsibility is to the group and not to the supervisor. This can be accomplished if the program is actually group-planned, and if the delegation of responsibility is made at the planning session. When responsibility is assumed in a group planning session, the supervisor loses the temptation to reach for authority and the teacher loses fear of the supervisor. But the teacher has an even more compelling responsibility, the responsibility to his fellow workers.

It is much easier to go to a supervisor with an excuse that it was impossible to do the work than it is to go to a group of one's peers and say that it has been impossible to accomplish what one has agreed to do. By having the individual accept responsibility to the group, the play on personal feelings is eliminated. The group member assuming the responsibility does not feel that he is being imposed upon by an individual who happens to dislike him. Neither does he feel resentment toward the supervisor for giving him a load that he is unable to bear if it becomes too great. He has responsibility to the group and his reactions toward his work are transferred to the group rather than to the supervisor.

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How Can Persons Be Assisted in Carrying Out Responsibilities?

As staff members assume responsibility, deadlines should be agreed upon for the completion of the work. Members of the group who are assigned responsibility or who volunteer to accept responsibility should do so in terms of a date set by the group's production schedule. *If deadlines are agreed upon, they serve as the control factors in the situation.* They become the impersonal taskmasters. When a teacher agrees to a deadline, he commits himself and establishes his program without pressure from superior authority. If the supervisor uses his personality or his force to control a situation, antagonism and personal antipathy may easily develop.

If supervisors want others to assume responsibility more than once, they must insure that the persons allocated the responsibility have the necessary authority for carrying out the task they have assumed. Frustration results when authority does not go with responsibility, and the acceptance of future responsibility is avoided. No one can do his best when he does not know how soon he will come to the limit of his authority or when he does not have the necessary authority to take action. A teacher must be secure in the knowledge that the immediate decisions he makes in carrying out the responsibility will be accepted and upheld by the group and the supervisor.

The supervisor must not grab control again when he thinks the teacher or the staff is making mistakes. When he retracts the authority that he has shared, he is telling all the staff members that he didn't share authority at all. Instead, he has kept them guessing about what he wanted. If the thing he wanted is not done, he recalls the authority. The person responsible for carrying out the action was really acting without authority, because no authority was actually shared. Whenever authority is revoked by the supervisor, it is apparent to the teacher that he has not had responsibility and that he will not have to assume responsibility in the future. He knows that if he gets

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into a difficult spot, he will be saved. The supervisor has continued to assume full responsibility and has indicated no real confidence in the ability of the staff members. No one continues to assume responsibility when those who are in charge of the work have failed to give him a vote of confidence. After a few experiences of this type, the teacher will refuse to accept responsibility.

One of the most devastating things that can happen to an enthusiastic teacher is to assume responsibility for a job and then have it snatched out of his hands. Seemingly insignificant



things can have long-term effects on a teacher in this respect. For example, in a Brooklyn high school a principal asked a teacher to go down the hall to meet a parent and escort the parent to the library. Before the teacher had walked the length of the hall, the principal rushed ahead of the teacher to greet and escort the parent himself.

This small, insignificant incident was remembered ten years later by the teacher involved. In a discussion of getting teachers to assume responsibility, he cited this experience as the thing that had kept him from assuming responsibility in the job he currently held. Probably the supervisor never gave the episode a second thought, but it continued to affect the leadership of a teacher for ten years.

The supervisor must keep the channels of communication

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open if teachers are to discharge the responsibilities they have accepted. People are willing to work together when they are fully informed. They loose the desire to work for the achievement of goals they have helped establish if they are not kept acquainted with the progress that is being made. Channels must be kept open both ways. If the people who are carrying out the program have no means of pointing out their difficulties to those who are in charge, the difficulties may assume such importance in the minds of the teachers that progress will stop. If, however, those who are expending the energy necessary to make the program succeed have a way of getting the attention of the total group focused on the difficulties encountered, they feel that they are not working alone, and that their obstacles are the concern of the total group. When a worker feels that his problems are being considered by the group, his sense of belonging to the group and his sense of responsibility to the group increase in spite of the difficulties.

In a group situation, the supervisor should constantly encourage a group to recognize members who have made exceptional contributions to the carrying out of a program. As supervisors give praise, or encourage the group to give praise, for work well done, they are providing additional stimulus for the assumption of further responsibility. Group members are encouraged to accept further responsibility when they are given full credit for work previously done. But if the official leader assumes credit for work done by another, he discourages anyone else from assuming responsibility for additional work. When a supervisor assumes the credit, he destroys the feeling of responsibility held by the rest of the staff.

What Conditions Discourage Assumption of Responsibility?

Under no circumstances must the supervisor give the impression that he is out to make a record for himself. If the members of the group receive this impression, it will be recognized

that the participation in policy formation which the supervisor is suggesting is simply a device for manipulating the group. *The techniques of a supervisor are judged in terms of the motives which the group attributes to him.* If the supervisor takes all the credit when the program receives praise, the teachers will let him carry the full responsibility for his program. He has made it clear to the community and to the teachers that the program is his, and the teachers are letting him have both the program and the responsibility for it.

Some teachers feel that supervisors use them as stepping stones to better positions. They say a principal comes to their building, institutes a new program, and is promoted to higher rank on the basis of the results of their efforts. They have developed a feeling of resentment and are determined that they will not be exploited further by a supervisor who stands to gain through their efforts. The supervisor must keep in the background if he hopes to overcome this feeling and get teachers to assume responsibility.

When teachers see inequality in load, they develop resentment that keeps them from assuming new responsibilities. This inequality may be among teachers, if some are asked to assume many extra duties or to carry a heavy pupil load while others have less responsibility; or it may exist between the teacher's load and the supervisor's load. When teachers see a supervisor taking life easy, they have a good reason for refusing to increase their own burden.

Another reason why many people do not assume more responsibility is that they are already overburdened. It is common practice in some schools to exploit the willing worker. If supervisors want people to assume responsibility, they must not overload the members of the staff who are quick to accept it. If people see that those who are willing are not protected from acquiring too much of a load, they become very reticent about assuming responsibility. One of the functions of supervision is to see that no member of the staff is overloaded. When the supervisor protects staff members from assuming too many

to plan the work ahead and to discuss how the responsibility will be divided. It is looking at the facts together and seeking agreement on next steps. On this basis a conference may actually result in reduced or reassigned responsibilities!

In summary, it is evident that getting people to assume responsibility involves first of all working on the morale of the staff. It means: *helping the staff have a part in deciding upon the work to be done; giving the staff an opportunity to plan and think through problems together; letting the staff assign the responsibilities to its members; making possible constant communication among all members of the working team; and building within the staff a habit of looking at the job distribution and making reassignment when any inequalities exist.*

How Can Creativeness Be Increased?

Supervisors are coming to realize that change in the school program must have as its basis the individual teacher. If a better school program is desired, an environment in which the classroom teacher can be creative, can improve his teaching, and can exert leadership must be established. Unless the supervisor sees his task as curriculum improvement through encouraging creativity in teachers, his function becomes restrictive. He sees his work as an attempt to discover what is going on and to bring about conformity to the existing curriculum and instructional pattern. Emphasis on creativity is the threshold to improvement; stressing conformity means, at best, preserving, the status quo.

In program improvement, final decision must be in the hands of the teacher. Although certain common principles operate in all good learning situations, it is impossible to say what good teaching will be except in a particular situation. Judgment concerning that situation must be made by someone who knows all the factors and has the ability and freedom to take the action that will meet the specific requirements of the situation. No one has as much knowledge about his classroom as the teacher. Leadership is provided by a creative teacher, a teacher who

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is still growing, a teacher who is seeking to improve his teaching. Such a teacher has a sense of direction that carries with it a deep feeling of responsibility, a willingness to try new implementations of the principles of an effective learning situation, and the ability to develop new materials and procedures. The supervisor's function, if such a basis for the improvement of the school program is accepted, becomes the development of these qualities.

Creative teaching involves being dissatisfied with the results obtained with present procedures, feeling that perfection is something never quite attained but constantly sought, having new ideas, being willing to try the new ideas and to evaluate the results produced. Creativeness is really a constant state of experimentation. This experimentation has three phases; planning, testing, and revising.

Courage is needed to try new procedures, and many teachers will not depart from the methods with which they feel at home unless the supervisor helps them. For the supervisor, promoting creativeness in teachers involves solving three problems. They are:

How can the teacher be helped to obtain a clear sense of direction?

How can the willingness of teachers to try new procedures be increased?

How can the teachers be given greater security during the process of change?

If teachers have a part in the establishment of the purposes of the school program, their sense of direction becomes clear. Therefore, a primary step in helping teachers to become more creative, as in encouraging teachers to assume responsibility, is to spend time with the staff in examining the purposes of the school and revising these purposes in terms of the basic values which the staff holds. Time spent in arriving at a common philosophy is not wasted in promoting creativeness. It is essential.

Once agreement has been reached on the purposes of the

program, the next responsibility of the supervisor is to increase the willingness to try new procedures. Willingness to try new procedures is encouraged by providing a permissive atmosphere and a secure relationship with the official leader plus removing the factors in the situation that encourage conformity to a pattern.

Teachers cannot be expected to be creative if the supervisor believes that there is one best method of teaching. If such is the case, teachers bend their efforts to discovering and following the method that the supervisor accepts. But creativeness is encouraged by the supervisor's frank admission that the best method of teaching has not yet been discovered, that the best procedure for any given group must be developed by that group in terms of its personnel and the limiting factors of the situation, and that the best method for any individual teacher will be an adaptation of the basic laws of learning to his own personality and particular skills. Much has been learned from research and experience, but teachers must continue to experiment to increase their effectiveness.

An essential step in promoting creativeness in teachers is to remove as many city-wide or school-wide restrictions as possible.

In a California city, a teacher of typing returned from a summer of graduate work with the idea that his method could be improved by putting the markings on the keys of the typewriters. Before he could make this change, he had to submit a written request to the city curriculum committee for permission to deviate from the method used in other typing classes. When the committee did not act on the request within a reasonable time, the principal of the school sent through a purchase order for the necessary key caps. But the curriculum committee, which had worked out a relationship with the purchasing department whereby it passed on all orders relating to materials of instruction, stopped the purchase order. The teacher was thus unable to try out a method of whose value he had become convinced after much study. It is easy to imagine

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the enthusiasm of that typing teacher for his job and his school system.

If teachers are to show creativeness, they must be accepted as people who have ability, understanding, and sufficient knowledge to prepare the best type of learning experience for the group of children for whom they have responsibility. If they are not so accepted, creativeness is not really desired. Leadership within the staff is not encouraged. Teachers are expected to conform to a pattern that has been worked out by an intelligence superior to their own.

Another manifestation of this denial of the desire for creativeness in teachers is city-wide or school-wide examinations. If official leaders trust the intelligence of the teacher, they must make the assumption that they can rely on him to devise the type of evaluative experiences that are most suitable and desirable for his class.

A way of increasing the teacher's willingness to advance new ideas and procedures is by not insisting that the official leader's ideas about teaching are the right ones. As supervisors insist that their answers are correct, teachers turn from attempts to create for themselves to efforts to learn what the supervisor's answers are. By keeping his answers in the background or as a part of group thinking, the supervisor encourages teachers to think, try, and evaluate for themselves. Group discussion at which teachers' opinions are accepted on equal terms with those of the supervisor promote self-reliance, which is basic to creativeness.

One of the most effective ways to promote creativeness is to shift the emphasis on proof. Too many times proof of the value of a new method is required before it can be tried. Too many supervisors feel that their chief function is to raise questions about teacher proposals in order to compel teachers to think through their ideas carefully and to leave out those that are not worth while. Although this is a valuable and important function, it can be carried to such an extreme that teachers find it easier to follow customary procedures than to attempt to con-

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vince the supervisor that something new is worth doing. *If supervisors put as much emphasis on proof that new procedures should not be tried as on proof that they should, creativeness will be greatly encouraged and many more new things will be tried.* In either case, the supervisor should not feel that the teacher's job is to give answers or proof which satisfy the supervisor. The supervisor's questions are only for the purpose of helping the teacher evaluate his own work.

One concept that has held back the development of creative teaching has been that there is a model that should be emulated. To take classrooms as a single example, many educational exhibits show model rooms which manufacturers hope schools will copy. As a result, many administrators have accepted the idea that there is one type of classroom which is superior, and in some systems in the country all third-grade classrooms, for example, look as much alike as possible. Teachers in these systems have been led to believe that variation, perhaps a product of creativeness, is undesirable.

Some of the schools in which creativeness in room organization and decoration has been most pronounced have been those in which economic conditions have prevented the building of uniform classrooms. Teachers have had to improvise and develop environments in which they could carry on their teaching. Out of this need has emerged creativeness in classroom organization.

Teachers should be encouraged to develop rooms that reflect the character of their work, the personality of their group, and their own best thinking. Not only does this practice add variety and color to the experience provided for children in school but it leads to the emergence of more effective techniques of classroom organization.

Promoting a willingness to try new things is only the first step of the supervisor in developing creativeness in teachers. When this willingness is put into action, the supervisor must then give the security that makes any venture into new types of work a satisfying one.

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What Aids to Creative Teaching Can Be Provided?

A further way of promoting creativeness in the teaching staff is by giving recognition to those people who are trying new procedures. This recognition may consist of nothing more than having the people who are doing the experimental work tell the staff what they are trying to achieve and the results they are getting.

At this point it should be stressed that experimentation should not be limited to a few members of the staff. All should be encouraged to experiment when they have an idea they want to test. If creative activity is limited to a few members of the staff, the status of those who are denied the privilege will be jeopardized; inter-staff jealousy and disparagement of creative endeavor will develop.

A second form of recognition is the commissioning of certain staff members to attend summer workshops on scholarships to develop new ways of working and of using materials in a given area. The choosing of the teachers to receive the scholarships should be made on the basis of expressed desire to attend, the extent to which the teachers involved have demonstrated willingness to try new procedures, and the need for spreading such experiences through the entire faculty.

Another way of giving the creative teacher recognition is by encouraging him to discuss new procedures with parent groups and by having the parents plan with him ways of making the procedures more worth while. Monthly planning meetings of parents and teacher, a practice that is becoming more widespread, make this type of recognition possible.

One difficulty for a teacher attempting new procedures is the lack of adequate materials. In some systems, purchase routines make it necessary to order equipment as much as a year before it will be used and from a list of approved materials. No provision is made for securing materials that are not included in the annual order. As a result, many teachers who have tried new

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projects in which the need for unordered materials arose have been forced to dip into their own resources. If this condition continues, teachers who find themselves financially pressed discontinue their attempts at newer types of teaching. They return to routine practices and the regular materials provided.

Some schools encourage the development of newer procedures by the establishment of a petty cash fund for the purchase of expendable materials. When the need for materials arises, the fund is available. No school expects its teachers to purchase teaching aids out of their own salary, yet many administrations have not recognized that insight comes out of the context of the situation, that experiences planned too far ahead may lose the element of spontaneous creativeness. The petty cash fund is one answer to the problem.

One of the biggest factors in promoting creative teaching is the development of self-confidence. As long as teachers are inhibited and self-conscious, creativeness cannot be expected. When teachers are self-assured and relaxed, and when they take part easily in any social situation that confronts them, they are ready to work with children on a creative basis. One of the foundation stones of creative teaching is a program in which teachers have an opportunity to develop social skills and self-confidence in social groups. Supervision that wants creative teachers has a major responsibility for promoting a program of social activities for the faculty.

Still another aspect of self-confidence in teaching situations is the acquisition of skill in many media. When teachers feel inadequate in media other than talking or writing, in-service training should include activities in several media. One school in New York City, concerned with increasing the creativeness of its teachers, provided opportunities for them to go into the arts laboratory and work in clay, papier-mâché, art metal, leather, plastics, and other types of materials used by the pupils. As the teachers developed their skill in those media, they began to try a much wider variety of projects in their classes. Also, in the process of working with those media many of the tensions

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and emotional strains of the teachers were relieved. Problems that they had kept to themselves—problems of relationships with other teachers, faculty organization, and cooperation—were brought into the open while they worked together in media in which they could be creative.

One of the big handicaps that many teachers feel as they attempt new things is the difficulty in obtaining evidence of results. School officials and teachers have become accustomed to determining pupil progress by the amount of subject matter acquired. Tests of subject-matter information are seldom questioned by supervisors, parents, or pupils. On the other hand, attempts to measure other types of growth have been so infrequent in the past that they are viewed with suspicion by parents and students. A supervisor can help his teachers feel more secure by working with them to develop types of evaluation procedures that will measure a wider variety of types of pupil growth. As teachers learn how to evaluate additional types of pupil growth and to see the results of the procedures used, they become freer in their attempts to develop newer methods of teaching which promote the so-called "intangible" types of pupil growth.

Creativeness in teaching is not something that can be bought or commanded. It can only be encouraged. It is encouraged by the attitude of the supervisor, by the removal of unnecessary restrictions, by demonstrations of belief in the ability of teachers to make intelligent decisions, by providing a wide range of materials and the financial means of securing those not available, and by placing the emphasis on proving why improvement should not be attempted rather than proving why any new procedure should be tried.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Establish a permissive atmosphere in which mistakes in judgment are not punished?

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2. Accept opposing points of view as a contribution to group growth?

3. Bring the staff into the process of identifying the problems on which the group should be working?

4. Share determination of goals and method of operation?

5. Work for responsibility to the group rather than to the supervisor?

6. Encourage committee work where teachers and supervisors work together as equal members of a team?

7. Recognize that planning sessions are responsibility-assuming situations?

8. Provide opportunity to volunteer to assume preferred types of responsibility?

9. Agree on deadlines for fulfillment of responsibility?

10. Share necessary authority to carry out responsibility?

11. Resist temptation to grab control when a staff member makes a mistake?

12. Keep channels of communication open by which teachers can make suggestions for improvement to the staff and by which persons requiring help in carrying out an assignment can make their needs known?

13. Encourage the staff to recognize the exceptional contribution of members to the group and the program?

14. Share all praise and recognition?

15. Seek equality of load within the staff?

16. Ask no greater load of any staff member than I assume?

17. Take a firm stand against a teacher's assuming too many responsibilities?

18. Assume that the staff member is going to accept responsibility?

19. Emphasize that persons learn through mistakes as well as success?

20. State belief that there is no one best method of teaching?

21. Decrease city-wide or school-wide regulations to the absolute minimum?

How Can Leadership in the Group Be Developed?

22. Insist that my ideas about teaching are not the only correct ones?
 23. Ask as frequently for proof why a new method should not be tried as for reasons why it should?
 24. Encourage teachers to develop distinctive classrooms that reflect the work and activities of their classes?
 25. Recognize persons who are trying new procedures?
 26. Make sure that the same persons are not always being given recognition?
 27. Establish a petty cash fund for the purchase of expendable materials whose use has not been foreseen?
 28. Provide a socialization program that will increase teachers' self-assurance and social skills?
 29. Provide in-service training experience in a variety of media for self-expression?
 30. Help teachers develop techniques for evaluating a variety of types of pupil growth?
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For Further Exploration

A new theory of leadership is emerging from research and from the failure of authoritarian procedures to release the potential of the total staff. The pioneer writing of Mary Follette has been collected by Metcalf and Urwick in *Dynamic Administration* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940). Kenneth Benne has attempted to state the place of authority in a group with democratic leadership in *A Conception of Authority* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943). Alice Miel applied the emerging conception of leadership to curriculum-improvement procedures in *The Changing Curriculum* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1948), and the 1946 Yearbook of ASCD, *Leadership Through Supervision*, carried the new concept into supervision. A. W. Gouldner in *Studies in Leadership* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950) and Franklyn S. Haiman in *Group Leadership and*

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Democratic Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951) have provided provocative and helpful statements of current thinking.

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The type of experiences a person has determines the attitudes, values, and point of view he develops. If his experiences with people are pleasant ones in which his personality is respected, he comes to believe in the worth of personality and to be concerned about the feelings of others. The supervisor builds good human relations or hinders them by the way he treats people.

Good human relations cannot be obtained by demanding or requesting them. They are built by living and working with fellow staff members in such a way that they can practice good human relations too.

A supervisor should exhibit a belief in the worth of all individuals, respect for the wishes and feelings of others, the will to see that all live and work in harmony, plus skill in working with individuals and groups in such a way that these ends are promoted.

Chapter 6

How Much Faith Is Necessary?

Dean Cromwell, the famous track coach of the University of Southern California, based his coaching on a belief in people. He said that if you believe people can do better and keep telling them so, they will make a prophet of you. The success of his teams indicates the value of his approach.

Official leaders in schools must have a deep faith in the worth of each individual in the school and a firm belief that the potential of each individual will be developed. This faith is the key to the creation of the type of environment in which all will grow. It is the foundation stone of good human relations.

The faith must start with the official leader's belief in his own worth and in the worth of every individual; then he must function in such a way that others will be helped to develop a belief in their own value.

How Much Self-Confidence Is Necessary?

An official leader must have confidence in himself. Psychology contains much evidence that scapegoating and the desire to belittle or to hurt others come from feelings of insecurity. When people are sure of themselves, of their ability to meet situations, of the value of their ideas and purposes, of their value as persons, they do not feel a constant need for having other people tell them that they are important, valuable, and worthy. They don't have to build up feelings of superiority in order to eliminate the gnawing feelings of inferiority. They do

not have to show themselves that they are better than someone else.

When a person has confidence in himself and in his ability to deal with situations, he doesn't feel the need for being constantly on guard. He can treat others as equals and believe that all are working for the good of the school. He doesn't have to be afraid the other person is after his job or getting the best of him. A person who is not sure of himself must watch the way situations are developing to see whether or not he will be capable of dealing with them when they arise. He will take the necessary action, often harmful to others, to keep situations from arising in which he may fail.

To avoid feelings of insecurity as an official leader in a school, a person must know what the functions of an official leader are and he must have the training that gives skill in these functions.

An example of insecurity caused by lack of understanding of the function of an official leader is the false assumption of some principals that they should know more about the subject matter in all fields than the teachers working in each field. That is an impossibility. As a result of the insecurity arising from this assumption, they issue orders about the way subjects should be taught and about the content of courses; they give instructions without any consultation with the members of the staff involved. These principals avoid joint thinking because they are afraid their lack of knowledge will be revealed. This unnecessary insecurity, with its resulting malpractice, occurs because these official leaders have not recognized that their function is one of coordination, and that they are not expected to serve as technicians and specialists in every field.

If an official leader eradicates his feeling of superiority, his sense of adequacy increases. This apparently contradictory statement is true. If he eliminates the assumption that the official leader is chosen because of superior intelligence and ability, he does away with the necessity always to be better than any member of the group. He makes it possible to admit mistakes and ask for help, to recognize and use superior skill

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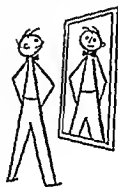
in the group. If he accepts the official leader's function as helping the group achieve unity and release its inherent leadership, he can feel adequate by performing these tasks well. He does not have to feel inadequate because he must cover up his inability to do the impossible.

Insecurity plagues some official leaders because they establish a stereotype of the way a person in an official leader's position should act. They fail to recognize the need for being themselves, the need for accepting their own personalities as valid for leadership; they try to assume a dignity and a manner of behavior that is alien to them. As a result, they keep other people away from them in order to keep the falseness of their assumed personality from being detected.

But remaining secure involves more than accepting one's present status. In order to maintain self-confidence, it is necessary to continue to study and grow. If the official leader fails to keep abreast of the new developments in education, he finds himself rejecting new activities and those members of the staff who are participating in them. He begins to belittle others and their achievements in order to maintain his own feeling of adequacy. He clings to things that he knows, rather than encouraging something new, because he is sure of his understanding in the tried method of operation.

It is necessary also to study the results of one's past action and to recognize that mistakes can be learning experiences. If the leader looks upon mistakes as something to hide, then his performance becomes something that decreases his own self-confidence. Everyone makes mistakes. If he looks upon mistakes as a way to grow, his failure in the present situation helps to build his confidence in himself because he uses failure to increase his adequacy for new situations that will arise.

When a leader is sure of himself in the sense described, he can stop analyzing situa-



tions to see whether they will upset him or make him feel successful and can begin to study them to see whether or not they are going to make other people feel more adequate and become stronger persons.

His self-confidence increases the self-confidence of the staff. Compare the boss who is in a perpetual fret, afraid the task will not be done on time, afraid his superior will not like the way the work is being handled, and afraid that he is not treating everyone right, with the supervisor who is aware of all the difficulties, yet shows by his every action that he knows that he can meet any situation and that the staff will be able to do its part. No one likes to work for a worry wart or even a supervisor who gives the appearance of being one.

A supervisor needs to ask himself: Am I always frowning? Do I ever have time to take a few minutes to relax and joke with the faculty? Am I afraid to have visitors observe in the school? Must I always be behind a desk or table during an interview or talk?

These are little things, but if the answers do not satisfy him, they probably do not satisfy the staff.

How Much Confidence in Others Is Necessary?

An official leader must believe in the worth of others—all others. He must believe that each teacher and each child in the school has value and a contribution to make, that the failure of any individual to make a contribution is due to the ineffectiveness of the leader. Such faith is basic to an environment in which everyone respects the worth of everyone else.

People tend to live up to what others expect them to be. If the official leader does not believe that others are worth while, that they are trustworthy, that they have a real contribution to make, they won't profit from his leadership. If he has faith in them and believes in their potentialities, they will grow and mature through their contact with him.

When a supervisor evidences faith in teachers' worth and in

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their willingness to accept each other, he leads them to demonstrate these qualities in their relationships.

But the official leader dares not make an exception. If he starts denying the value of anyone in the situation—teacher, pupil, or parent—he sets the stage for other persons to begin classifying as unworthy and unimportant individuals with whom they differ.

If some teachers have lost their enthusiasm and their desire to grow and be better teachers, it has come about as a result of lack of faith of the supervisor in them or as a result of frustrations in the teaching situation which have led them to feel that the official leader does not believe they are important.

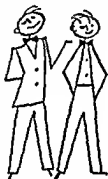
Teachers and pupils will be helped to increase their effectiveness as persons and group members if the official leader demonstrates confidence in them and respects them for their contribution. Teachers grow in the type of environment in which they are accepted as worth-while people with ability to increase in value.

An official leader may demonstrate lack of faith in many ways. He may be blunt and undiplomatic, as was the principal reported by one teacher:

At P.T.A. meetings my principal implies that his faculty members are not as interested in children's welfare as they should be. He encourages parents to bring to his attention any classroom incidents that will bear out his contention.

It is not difficult to guess the type of relations that exist between that principal and his staff or the amount of contribution that his leadership is making to the growth of the teachers.

In a large city high school the principal was speaking to the student honor society about types of service. To illustrate a negative kind of service, he said, "There are not more than twelve teachers on this staff who will assume new responsibilities or do anything for me unless I pay them overtime or give



them a free period." The faculty members present immediately began to speculate on which twelve were the ones who would do the principal's bidding.

Not only did the principal, by a display of lack of faith, decrease the possibility of growth in his faculty by condemning them as unworthy, he also increased the students' doubt of the teachers' worth. Such chance remarks are significant in two ways. They are indices to the kind of relationships that exist in the school group and they intensify the emotions already aroused.

In attempts to help teachers, supervisors can act in such a way that the respect of members of a group for each other is jeopardized. A substitute teacher cites the following experience:

While I was taking over an English class for the day at a junior high school, the assistant principal in charge of English decided it was her day for showing an underling up. I was doing remedial reading work when Miss Brown stepped in, looked at me sourly, and exclaimed, "That's not the way it is done, Mrs. Jones." She then, in very audible and definite tones, corrected me in front of the students at every turn of the lesson. Every time I am observed I think of the incident and feel like crouching under a seat.

In this action, the supervisor showed no respect for the worth of the substitute teacher. Such supervision has discredited the use of observation as a technique for improving instruction. It has separated supervisors and teachers. All other supervisors whom this teacher encounters are suspected and feared until they prove themselves.

But the implications for pupils are worse. The pupils are led to think that human beings—even teachers—and their feelings do not count. How much more cruel would the assistant principal have been if a pupil had seemed unworthy to her. "Power is to be used to hurt people until they cringe, cry, and do what you want." That is the lesson the pupils get from the experience.

The things the staff members of a school do speak much louder than the things they say. Pupils acquire attitudes and

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values, the guides for action, from observation and the emotional atmosphere as well as through any direct teaching approach.

Improvement of teaching must start with a respect for the personality of the teacher and the work he is doing. It must proceed through *encouragement to develop special interests* and to try new procedures for obtaining results the teacher deems important.

Teachers react negatively to an attempt to impose a philosophy and procedure upon them. Attempted imposition makes



clear that the supervisor considers himself more intelligent than a teacher and engenders active resistance by the most intelligent, aggressive staff members.

In one school where the principal was trying to institute more progressive practices, the members of the staff who would not accept the newer theories were disregarded and their teaching practices were scorned. An older member of the staff, the head of the English department, suffered in silence and then began an opposition campaign. The faculty split and the principal became ineffective.

A new supervisor entered the scene. He disregarded the philosophic differences altogether. He began working with each staff member on improving the phase of his teaching that seemed most important to that teacher. The results were vastly different. The head of the English department began a special

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study of ways to improve her teaching of remedial reading. Soon she was telling the faculty about specific programs that she was carrying on that were far in advance of any practices in the school. The same reaction was induced in the other teachers in the areas of their special interests.

The faculty became a stimulating group in which to work because of the constant experimentation and the exchange of ideas. Both strong and weak teachers grew.

Teachers are not all alike. They do not have the same concerns or abilities. If a supervisor believes in the worth of all, he must be willing to accept differences and to value each person for his special contribution. He must recognize that the staff is richer because of the presence of each person, regardless of the limitations of the various staff members. Official leadership must make allowances for differences in the temperament and tempo of various individuals and must encourage the staff to do so too. Attention must be centered on the special contribution that each staff member can make and on creating the situation in which he will want to make it.

This point of view affects the way the supervisor will work with staff members who are problems to him. He realizes that his responsibility is to provide the pupils with the best possible learning situation; he knows that improvement is necessary; but he knows too that he must proceed in such a manner that the worth of teachers is accepted and increased.

Let's look at three types of teachers that supervisors have identified as problems: the lazy teacher, the colorless teacher, the older teacher, the undemocratic teacher, and the teacher who disagrees. These inappropriate labels are applied for identification purposes only to certain patterns of behavior exhibited by certain teachers.

What Can Be Done To Help the "Lazy" Teacher?

The "lazy" teacher receives automatic salary increases; is not interested in new material; rushes out of the building as soon as possible at the end of the day; makes fun of new teachers

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who do more than is required; takes professional courses to get more pay but does only the amount of work the instructor insists that he do; spends as much time as he dares in the smoking room; resents visitors or other teachers who come to visit; uses the plan book he developed during the first year he started teaching; avoids all committee or faculty meetings possible; and does not check on pupil products.

Analysis shows that a teacher behaves in this manner because of the experiences he has had. Few new teachers enter the job with such an attitude or such behavior. Some of the reasons teachers develop in this direction are: lack of appreciation of work previously done; no recognition for significant contributions in the classroom or in the faculty; failure to get a promotion that had been expected; too many outside interests; family problems; lack of responsibility for the school program; or loss of confidence in the official leader of the school. As a result of such experiences, a teacher decides that extra effort is foolish. He knows that he will get his automatic increase. He has tenure.

A "lazy" teacher's attention is focused outside the school. He is getting satisfaction from some source other than his job. The problem for the official leader is to help the teacher regain his enthusiasm for teaching.

As a supervisor begins to work with a teacher who is not carrying his share of the load, he must expect change to be slow. It cannot be secured by the use of force. The supervisor must build the teacher's confidence in his leadership, in himself, and in the importance of his work.

Faculty evaluation procedures will help in such a confidence-building program. In the evaluation, all teachers should be encouraged to be as critical as they wish without any fear of retaliation. As they move into a critical analysis of the program, they will begin to apply the criteria to their own work. Many teachers have been able to hide behind the rationalization that their opinion does not count, that they are not allowed to criticize what is occurring. They can say to themselves, "My judg-

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ment is not being used with regard to the total program. I do not have to apply it to myself." After an evaluation session in a school in which cooperative supervision was being intro-

IF THIS...



duced, one teacher, who had refused to do more than a minimum amount of work, remarked, "This is the first time in seventeen years that I have ever dared to speak freely about the school program as I did today." That experience in evaluation and that comment were first steps in the reclamation of the teacher. Criticism carries with it the responsibility to suggest something better. Constructive suggestion brings with it responsibility for making the proposals work. Progress through these steps for an individual may take several years, but patience, accep-

tance, and provision of opportunity to make a contribution constitute the therapy.

Another form of stimulation for disinterested teachers is to send them magazines that the official leader feels may contain some challenging ideas. Naturally, this practice can be followed only if the supervisor sends marked articles to all teachers on the staff. It cannot be introduced and applied only to those teachers who have lost their professional zeal.

Otherwise, its purpose is evident and the technique is ineffective.

THEN:



As the staff moves into committee organization, disinterested teachers should be drawn into committee work through cooperative staff planning. In that way, the teacher is faced with responsibilities that are being shared by the staff and he cannot ask for special exemption. Three committees that have proved to be good starting points for "lazy" teachers are the teacher

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welfare, the teacher self-evaluation, and the program planning committees.

If the program that is developing in the school has sufficient vitality, interest will become contagious. Any direct attempt to change the teacher will be unnecessary. His enthusiasm will be recaptured in spite of all he can do.

What Can Be Done To Help the "Colorless" Teacher?

The problem of the "colorless" teacher is even more difficult.

Jack is a case in point. He is in his mid-thirties, small in stature, with a round face and stubborn hair that refuses to stay in place.

His appearance is drab and his voice has little variety. He is lacking in humor and seldom laughs. In fact, he is so serious about teaching that students could count on the fingers of one hand the number of times in one semester Mr. K— smiled. He is always Mr. K— to his students, not even a nickname behind his back. He isn't that important to them.

He exhibits no friendliness to pupils or teachers. He isn't anti-social, but he has never learned how to win friends easily and is afraid of a rebuff. A rebuff, because of his scarcity of friends, is a serious experience for Jack.

He is extremely conscientious. He wants to do his job well. He is always on time and he follows all routines and regulations to the letter. His classes are always at the right place in the syllabus and if you have seen Jack teach that lesson before, it is possible to predict exactly how it will be taught the next time.

Obviously, a program of social activities for the faculty is one of the approaches through which the official leader can help Jack and other teachers like him. Through social experiences in which the teacher has a chance to share with others and gain greater security in his social relationships, he can acquire some of the skills that will help him establish better relationships with his pupils. If the supervisor believes that Jack has value, he must take the lead to give him opportunities

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for social growth. Jack will not make them himself. At parties the supervisor must arrange to draw Jack into activities. If the staff has developed group spirit, other members of the organization may take responsibility for Jack's growth.

Faculty activities, such as style shows or play productions, provide opportunities for all teachers to improve social skills.

For some teachers a workshop experience has been the turning point in their lives. They have found in workshops that it is possible to be informal and easy in their relationships with others and at the same time to learn effectively. They have discovered that pleasant human relations enhance the possibility of learning. Through experiences in art and square-dancing, they have gained a release for some of their inhibitions. They have discovered that making mistakes is a way of learning and not something that should be kept from other people.

By not insisting that teachers maintain a formal dignity in their relationships with students, official leaders have been able to help some teachers free themselves from restrictions that were causing their classes to be colorless, uneventful places.

What Can Be Done To Help the Older Teacher?

Some of our best teachers are the older teachers. They help the rest of the staff. But some of the teachers nearing retirement age have less apparent worth. Some seem to be seeking the easiest way to complete the last few years. They have reached maximum salary and make no attempt to improve their teaching. They have not attended any in-service course or read any of the newer publications in education. Others seem to want to prevent change. They have commitments to certain values which keep them from adapting their courses of study to meet the broad range of abilities present in the modern school. They try to keep the rest of the staff on the right path by attempting to dictate on the basis of seniority.

Recognizing and utilizing the worth of each teacher is the function of the official leader. Each person is a different problem and requires a study of background, special abilities, and

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motives, but certain general procedures can be applied in working with the older teacher whose contribution is less accepted.

The supervisor has the responsibility for seeing that older teachers do not lose a sense of leadership. He will constantly seek ways to use the special knowledges of the older teachers by providing opportunities for them to share such things as a good set of files, unusual skill in teaching spelling, knowledge of family background and history of students who need help, or familiarity with resources of the town library.

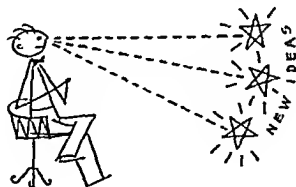
Older teachers have information about the school that is not possessed by any of the newer members of the staff, information that can be used in the solution of school problems. Their experience should be respected and their information used. As this is done, the older person does not feel any need to build up prestige by recounting what was done at previous times. He knows that his information is being tapped in the solution of problems and does not delay that solution while he recreates status for himself. The quality of the contribution is not as important as the fact that the teacher continues to have a phase of the work in which he can make a special contribution and exert leadership.

Sharing of information and ideas should be done in such a way that no one is committed to abide by the recommendation of a single individual. As a supervisor secures the advice of others, he shows them that he respects them and their contributions. But he must avoid asking for advice in such a way that it places him or the group in the position of being either forced to follow it or to discredit the person who gave the advice. If questions can be raised in such a way that it is evident that the group is seeking advice and not "the answer," the situation will not become difficult. No one should be in the position of giving the answer. One way to do this is to indicate that the advice of all is being sought. Staff discussions should be conducted in such a manner that different ideas and proposals receive equal consideration, regardless of the status or age of the person who advances them. When a supervisor disregards the points of

view that any members of his staff have, he decreases the possibility of taking them along with the program that is being developed. But when he brings them into the thinking on improvements that should be made, he secures their commitment to the promotion of the idea that evolves.

A return of initiative and desire to improve is promoted by an opportunity to share ideas. Sharing with young teachers is especially stimulating. It will help if the younger teacher takes the initiative in asking the older teacher to share ways of doing the difficult tasks connected with learning situations. If such an approach is made, the chances are that the older teacher, out of courtesy if nothing else, will ask the younger teacher how he is working on a similar problem. Out of this exchange will grow mutual respect and a feeling for the desirability of sharing and trying new ideas. In all his relationships, the official leader must stress the worth of all staff members and the way they can learn from one another.

The supervisor can stimulate growth by focusing his attention on steps teachers are taking to bring about program im-



provement. When a supervisor asks the older teacher to share the changes he is making to improve the work in his area, the supervisor displays concern for an on-going program. Progress can be speeded by suggesting that the older teacher try out some new procedures in those phases of his work in which he

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is least satisfied with his present methods and that he compare the results with the ones he has obtained before. Emphasis should be placed on improving the aspects of the program that are proving to be least effective and on letting the teacher be the judge. It should always be apparent that there is no desire to change simply for the sake of changing, but that change is desired when improvement results. As the older teacher is asked to be the judge, he sees that his values are still respected and that his judgment is considered worth while. This self-respect is the foundation for continued growth.

The staff can show recognition of the older teacher's worth by giving consideration to his physical difficulties. Various faculty committees working on program changes, scheduling, and room assignment should be encouraged to consider such factors as heart trouble, high blood pressure, and other physical impairments in making their plans.

When such consideration is given the older teacher, he will develop a feeling of responsibility for developing the full worth of other members of the staff.

An aspect of believing in others is the emphasis on the contribution of all members of the staff to the development of the program. As different types of contributions are recognized and accepted, young teachers, older teachers, and new teachers can all make a place for themselves and their unique abilities without injuring others. Older teachers can give continuity and tradition to the staff, and new teachers can add enthusiasm and a supply of outside ideas.

One of the basic elements in using the contribution of all is never to discredit ideas on the basis of the date of their origin. An idea should never be rejected because it was originated fifty years ago. Neither should new ideas that young teachers bring from the teachers' training institutions be labeled unsatisfactory or too progressive because they represent the most recent thinking. If the supervisor can keep the focus of attention on whether the idea and program really meet the needs of the children in the particular school and not on their source or time

of origin, much will be done to make both the older teacher and the new teacher feel secure.

What Can Be Done To Help the "Undemocratic" Teacher?

One of the most difficult problems faced by an official leader who is attempting to work cooperatively is the undemocratic teacher.

As official leaders begin their work, they must recognize that there are teachers in the profession who do not hold democratic values or who do not like democratic procedure. Some of the characteristics of these teachers are observable in their classrooms and others can be seen in their faculty relationships.

In the classroom the "undemocratic" teachers do not give pupils the opportunity to express their opinions. They start with the basic premise that the teacher's job is to tell students what to do and how to do it. Teaching is for the purpose of giving youngsters information, not helping them acquire democratic values and skills. Pupils have no opportunity to participate in the planning of classroom operations. When decisions are to be made, the teachers make them. Such teachers express lack of belief in democracy in their classroom by refusing to allow students to examine all sides of an issue. They analyze the issue for students and tell them what to think, or they make available only a portion of the data. Other undemocratic teachers do not respect minority groups or give them fair treatment in the classroom.

In faculty operation, the "undemocratic" teacher may operate in one of two ways. He may want authoritarian leadership. He plays up to the leader and asks for the leader's opinion and direction. He is impatient with agreements reached by faculty committees or through discussion at faculty meetings. He refuses to accept responsibility to the group and wants his functions outlined for him by the official leader. He wants to be told what to do by someone in authority.

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Or the teacher may wish to control the faculty by undemocratic procedure. He may seek a faculty organization that will enable him and those who think like him to control the faculty. He may want to make his opinion prevail even though it is minority opinion.

As a supervisor begins to plan ways of helping such teachers to improve, he must examine his own practice. Is he flattered by having people turn to him for answers? Does he want staff members to do what he tells them to do? Is he willing to accept responsibility outlined for him by the staff? Is he prone to indicate dissatisfaction with group decisions? Does he try to manipulate the faculty through control of the faculty organization?

If his answers to these questions satisfy him, he should determine why the in-service training program has failed to help the "undemocratic" teacher develop a belief in democratic values and procedures. He should look at: the in-service training program to see if he has brought to the staff teachers or philosophers who stress democracy in their presentations; the faculty discussions to see if democratic values have received sufficient attention; the faculty meeting procedures to see if they embody the principles which he hopes will guide teachers in their classroom relations; the teacher library to see if it contains books dealing with democratic faculty and classroom procedures.

But democracy cannot be obtained by authoritarian means. The supervisor who insists that the faculty will operate democratically, even if he has to punish or fire all who obstruct him, is doomed to failure before he starts. Force begets force. Dictatorial action to secure democracy destroys the faculty's belief in the official leader's commitment to democratic values. Administrative acts that violate democratic principles provide ammunition to those who have become resentful and bitter because of pressure to behave in a way in which they did not believe. Energy is diverted into resistance and scheming rather than applied to seeking better ways of working together.

If the supervisor has many teachers on the staff who are "undemocratic," he will probably want to raise an issue in staff

meeting over whether a major emphasis in the school program should not be placed on democratic learning.

The democratic spirit and democratic procedures are contagious. When democratic procedures are efficiently executed, they provide sufficient satisfaction to make teachers desire an increasing number of such experiences.

What Can Be Done with the Teacher Who Disagrees?

In any staff certain teachers will disagree with the supervisor. This disagreement may be violent or it may be a quiet, repressed resistance that the supervisor discovers only when cooperation is not achieved.

Disagreement should not disturb the supervisor. He should accept disagreement just as he accepts agreement. He should not consider it a personal offense. He should work as freely, as openly, and as cooperatively with those who disagree with him as he does with those who agree with him.

Much of the sting can be taken out of a disagreement if the supervisor will stress that honest disagreement in a staff is a desirable quality. This point of view must be a sincere one on the supervisor's part. He must realize and make clear that growth may result from disagreement if it is used as basis for study. Out of a disagreement that is examined and used as a starting point in reaching an agreement will come new insight on ways of working that neither party saw before the disagreement occurred.

A program must be built on all the points of view in the staff. If the ideas of those who disagree with the supervisor are excluded from the development of the program, the staff will be split, and the program's chances of success will be greatly limited. If consensus is to be achieved, the disagreement must be talked through and successful compromises must be reached. Without consensus, much time will be lost while the members of the staff fight each other. Those who do not agree will be

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constantly watching for shortcomings and opportunities to turn back.



Agreement should be sought between individuals as well as within the staff as a whole. The supervisor will want to sit down with the teacher who disagrees and seek to determine the areas of agreement. Ways of working should be built on the areas of agreement, with provision made for further exploring the areas of disagreement. If the disagreement is in the field of method, experimentation may be an easy way of solving the dilemma. If the disagreement, however, is in basic values held, it will be necessary to have long discussions with the teacher involved so that the points of view of the supervisor and the teacher will become very clear and so that an operating base may be established.

In private and public discussion with the teacher who disagrees, the supervisor should be concerned with the growth of the teacher and not with winning a point in an argument. If the emphasis is on growth, there will be times when the supervisor will lose arguments. The procedure for the supervisor should always be determined by what is happening to the other person. If the argument over a point is a growth experience, then it should be continued. If the disagreement is causing the

teacher to withdraw or to become bitter, then the issue should be put in the background as quickly as possible.

In no case should the supervisor lose his dignity and attempt to battle it out with the disagreeing teacher. It is not a situation in which he can fight fire with fire. If the supervisor takes an argumentative point of view, resistance is increased to a point where neither the supervisor nor the teacher can retire without serious loss of face. Any situation that develops to a place where winning the point is of primary importance decreases any real chance for obtaining consensus in the staff.

An important aspect of seeking agreement is for the supervisor to make no decision and to take no position on the basis of ideology or terminology. For example, to argue for progressive education or for the experience curriculum is to decrease the possibility of taking all the staff along. If the emphasis can be placed on providing the most effective type of education for the youngsters in the school and if decisions are made on that basis, then disagreement on values and method and terminology will fall into their proper place.

As a supervisor deals with various types of personnel problems, he must always keep in mind that they are individual cases and must be treated as such. Procedures that succeed with one may not succeed with another. He will need to study each person by observation and through the counseling interviews he has with the members of his staff.

In working with such teachers, he should make sure that they never become conscious of themselves as problems. Attention should be focused on the faculty and on the building of team spirit in the faculty. As the faculty becomes enthusiastic about the job it is doing and concerned with the improvement of the program, the persons who have been classified as personnel problems will lose the characteristics that have made them difficult to work with.

A basic guide line for the supervisor is the acceptance of all members of the staff. He must create the type of emotional atmosphere in which all people can feel their worth and in

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which they are encouraged to grow. Results must not be expected immediately and teachers must not be forced. In reality, it is the creation of an environment which promotes teacher growth that will enable the official leader to work effectively with individuals who are personnel problems to him.

How Can Staff Members Be Helped To Believe in Themselves?

If a supervisor wants staff members to grow, he must help them to feel important. In every way he can, the supervisor should build his staff's feeling of self-worth. Respect for the other person's opinion, giving explanations for decisions, and saying those things that build rather than detract are tools of the supervisor.

Little things count. Asking permission, for example. Some time ago a member of a professional consultation staff began sulking. Nothing that the supervisor could recall had been done to cause this action. Through a talk with the employee, it soon came to light that the supervisor had not asked permission. While the staff member had been on an extended trip, the office furniture had been rearranged and the desk and a bookcase assigned to the woman had been moved to a new but equally desirable location. Trivial? Yes, but not to the person involved. "Her" possessions had been moved without her permission. Of course, the supervisor had the right to do it. Logic was all on his side — but human beings do not operate by logic. Emotions and feelings are equally important. This supervisor had torn down, not built, a feeling of importance. He had unwittingly said to the staff member, "You do not count here. I don't need to ask your opinion or permission."

Comments by the supervisor that indicate that he feels he could equal or surpass the achievements of his staff are belittling. Praise for a previous staff, or reciting personal successes in a previous situation, implies a dissatisfaction with or lack of appreciation of the present group.

Supervision as Skill in Human Relations

Freedom to think, to express an opinion, to make decisions, to take action, all contribute to the development of a belief in one's self. Having the supervisor trust him and willing to think with him further builds his self-confidence. Seeing the group accept and begin to implement his proposals gives concrete proof of his value.

A supervisor's behavior in conferences and staff meetings reveals his belief in the worth of others. He shows respect for the teacher as he listens to the teacher's comments and opinions. He builds the teacher's belief in himself. When the supervisor refuses to listen, he indicates that he thinks that his ability is so much superior that he does not expect any worth-while contribution from the teachers. He decreases the teacher's belief in himself.

Actions that imply distrust decrease the sense of self-worth. When a supervisor requires that a teacher must check with him before any step can be taken, the supervisor shows lack of faith. When a supervisor forces people to give him detailed reports of their activities, he tells them they are not able to assume self-direction. When he establishes regulations that cover in minute detail the instructional procedures or the personal life of the teacher, he is denying the value of the persons involved.

Every detail of administrative or supervisory activity shows how worthy the supervisor considers the staff members and helps them form their picture of their own worth.

Here is how one beginning teacher described her supervisor's positive faith:

From the very first day I met him I felt very much at ease with him and felt as though he were really interested, not only in me as a teacher, but as a human being also. All of the teachers felt that at any time they could go to talk with him about any matter, big or little, and he would always seem as though he had nothing else to do and what you felt was important, he felt was important too. . . . He was interested in what I was doing and how we could help *me* do a better job.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Develop my self-confidence by a continuous study of leadership?
2. Seek *increased skill in coordinating activities?*
3. Avoid assuming *unnatural formality?*
4. Turn my mistakes into learning experiences?
5. Evaluate each situation on the basis of whether it helps others grow?
6. Believe in the worth of each member of the school community?
7. Avoid remarks that belittle the ability of others?
8. Demonstrate my belief in others by working with them on the type of improvement they deem important?
9. Accept laziness as the manifestation of destroyed interest and seek to restore it by bringing teachers into the evaluation process, by forwarding challenging ideas, and by having the staff involved in program development?
10. Help the colorless teacher through socialization activities and by encouraging informal pupil-teacher relations?
11. Help the older teacher by:
 - Using his leadership.
 - Providing opportunities to share skills, information, and abilities.
 - Emphasizing value of different types of contributions.
 - Judging ideas on the basis of their value in meeting child needs rather than their date of origin.
 - Encouraging older and younger teachers to work together.
 - Asking him to share new ideas he is trying.
 - Considering his physical difficulties in formulating schedules and teacher work loads?
12. Help the undemocratic teacher by:
 - Evaluating the procedures used in staff meetings.

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Bringing materials and persons who stress democratic values to the staff?

13. Inform persons of action that will affect them and secure their suggestions for possible improvement of procedure?

14. Listen to the comments, opinions, and suggestions of all staff members?

Chapter 7

How Can Staff Harmony Be Promoted?

Staff harmony is based on two foundation stones: a faith in the ability and value of each staff member; and a consideration for the wishes and feelings of individuals involved by a decision or action. An index to whether members of a group really are concerned about human relations is the way they make decisions. If procedure is determined by policy or organizational considerations, human relations have been assigned a secondary importance. If decisions are made in terms of the effect they will have on the feelings of others, good human relations are being practiced.

This does not mean that a decision should never be made which will disturb any staff member or that a group should be swayed by emotionalized appeals. It does mean that the group recognizes human personality as the center of value and makes its decisions in terms of how personalities involved in the situation, teachers, pupils, parents, will be affected. *Good human relations means making decisions based on the human factor in the problem.*

If good human relations are to prevail in a school group, the official leader must have the desire to see the group live and work in harmony, and he must be guided in his actions by his faith in staff members and by a concern for the feelings and desires of others. His relationship with individuals must show his concern for them and for their feelings about their work and associates. His work with the group must reduce conflict and hinder the formation of competing groups within the staff.

How Essential Is a Liking for Others?

A few years ago a supervisor asked one of his staff members how the supervision could be improved. After a minute's hesitation the person asked, "Why don't you smile when you say good morning?"

The reply was a shock. At the time, the department was undermanned and the supervisor was under the strain of an extremely heavy load of work. Meeting deadlines required the utmost exertion. Under the tension he had become so concerned with efficiency that he was omitting all the "unnecessary" things, even the smile with the morning salutation. The next step, perhaps, would have been the elimination of the "Hello."

A smile is a little thing, but it sets the tone of an office or a school. Throughout business there is a realization of the economic value of politeness and friendliness in meeting and working with people. Airlines capitalize on the smile and the courtesy of pretty girls selling tickets and providing comforts for passengers in the air. Telephone companies advertise the pleasant voices and good manners of their operators.

The supervisor's work is almost entirely with people. His success depends upon his ability to get along with people. A cheery hello and a smile do not cost the Board of Education money, but a lack of them does. But so does a quick, forced, saccharine-sweet smile. The greeting must be an expression of sincere liking for people.

The use of the person's name is a desirable adjunct to the smile. A supervisor cannot afford the luxury of being careless about names, because failure to remember a name places him at a terrific disadvantage. He spends so much effort in trying to recall the name that he pays inadequate attention to other details of the conversation. He becomes insecure in the situation or develops a compensatory callowness to human sensibilities which decrease the possibility of an official leader's gaining real leadership in his staff. People like to be remembered. They resent being forgotten, called by the wrong name or by a general term, or even having their name misspelled.

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Repeating the *name* during an introduction, asking the person to spell his *name*, writing the *name* as soon as possible, using the *name* frequently in the conversation, associating the *name* with some physical characteristic or other memory peg, or keeping a card file of names and descriptions have all proved to be effective devices for remembering *names*.

But a smile and calling a person by name are not enough. They serve only as the introduction. If the supervisor has a real interest in people, if he wants to hear about their troubles, successes, interests, and mistakes, he has *lagniappe*. Most people like to talk about themselves, their family, and their work. They like the person who lets them tell their stories. If, in addition, the official leader remembers to tell the staff members about compliments he has heard paid them and about favorable mentions of them he has read in the papers, he demonstrates an active interest.

But all these qualities can be superficial and meaningless unless they are based on a respect for the worth of the other person and a genuine desire for his happiness. These two values must be at the core of the supervisor's philosophy and personality if the first steps are to lead to better human relations in the staff. He must have such a genuine liking for people that others will sense it and be at ease with him.

In his administrative activities, an official leader must take every precaution to see that he is not set apart from the staff.

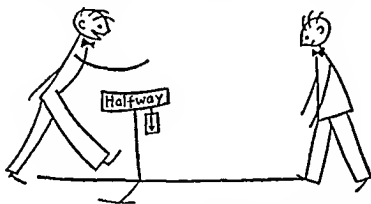
What Is Supervisory Lagniappe?

Years ago the merchants in New Orleans followed a custom called *lagniappe*. When a farmer bought a basket of food at the general store, the storekeeper would put in some candy for the children — free. Or if a woman purchased the material for a new dress, a free needle and some thread might be added to the package. *Lagniappe* was that little something extra, the added service, that insured satisfaction. Good human relations are built on *lagniappe*. The human touch in supervision consists of little things that please people.

Whose Responsibility Is Friendliness?

An essential element of supervisory lagniappe is real friendliness.

Simple reciprocal friendliness is not enough. In a position in which success depends upon working through others, friendliness must have an outgoing quality. It cannot be the type in which the official leader is friendly only to the persons friendly to him, or the type that makes the other person take the first step. Reservedness and aloofness cannot be qualities of an official leader with good human relations. He must be able to let others know that he likes them and he must be able to do it easily. It may require taking the first step, the second, the



third, and many more. It may mean accepting some rebuffs and working with people over a long period of time in situations in which they may be cool and reserved. It involves not allowing personal emotional reactions to interfere with continuing to exhibit a desire for friendly relations. The responsibility for helping others increase in friendliness rests squarely on the shoulders of the official leader.

One of the best ways for a supervisor to separate himself from his staff is to keep his office door closed, and to have it guarded by an efficient secretary who keeps all persons without appointments from disturbing "his majesty." If the supervisor has been promoted from the ranks, his former friends will

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call him "high hat." If he has been brought in from the outside, he will be classified as unapproachable and reserved. Such an arrangement is a sure way of crushing enthusiasm and initiative. Waiting two weeks for an appointment with the person able to make a decision daunts all but the most persevering and ardent.

One of the best personnel relations men in the country makes it a practice never to close his door. A person coming into the *outer office* can look in and see whether the man he wants to see is talking with someone else. There is never any suspicion that the door is closed so that "the boss" may take a nap. Furthermore, this executive never refuses to see anyone, nor does he keep people waiting while he signs mail, reads reports, or writes directives. *The only thing important enough to keep him from seeing anyone is another person.*

Watching his door shows how successful he has been. He is liked and respected by the entire working force. He is "Andy" to all. Visitors vary from the porters to the highest officials in the company. He never has to call anyone to his office. His office has become the unofficial hub of the company because everyone knows he can come here to discuss his problems.

Special advantages and privileges set the supervisor apart, too. Special cars, chairs, dining rooms, or tables all indicate that he feels his function is more important than others' and serve as a barrier to his free interaction with the total group.

How Important Are Manners?

Discourtesy toward another shows that a man thinks he is better than the other person is. The action says, "You are unimportant. You don't count. I can ignore how you feel."

A teacher, asked to describe her principal, wrote, "My principal takes pride in the fact that he has never said 'please' to a teacher." It was unnecessary to read further to know what she thought of her principal, of the type of human relations that existed in that school. Why would any person believe he is en-



titled to go through life without even being courteous? What feelings of superiority does he have? What contempt does he have for teachers? How does he believe people grow and develop? It is easy to imagine the way he wants his teachers to treat their pupils.

A supervisor who understands human nature and effective ways of working with people wants to create an easy, pleasant relationship with the people on his staff.

In interviews and conferences he wants the people with whom he is working to be friendly, undisturbed, and receptive. Many supervisors unknowingly prevent such people from entering their offices. For some reason, everyone who comes is brittle and peevish and must be won at the cost of time that should be devoted to the purpose of the conference. They, the unsuspecting supervisors, make this added work for themselves by keeping people waiting.

Keeping a person waiting implies that the supervisor considers himself more important and his time worth more than that of the person outside. Some untrained supervisors imagine they impress people by keeping them waiting. Instead, they antagonize people and arouse resentment toward such self-assumed importance. They waste time, because a larger portion of the conference must be used in establishing rapport. Failing to keep an appointment on time is not only bad manners, it is a breach of contract.

If for good reason there must be a delay, the supervisor should make an appearance at the appointed time, explain the cause, and secure agreement to a specified amount of delay or make another appointment. The supervisor may be busier than the other person, but that does not change the reaction of the person to being kept waiting. The supervisor may be conscience-stricken because the present engagement is running behind schedule, but unless he takes the trouble to slip to the door

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and secure agreement to delay the next conference, the person waiting will never know. Unless a supervisor's concern for the way the other person feels is conveyed to that person, no benefits result from his concern.

Supervisory lagniappe is demonstrated in the way a request is made. "Mr. Jones, bring me a copy of the new course of study." "Will you bring me a copy of the new course of study, Mr. Jones?"

From the listener's point of view, two philosophies are embodied in those requests. The first implies control and command. It is a carry-over from slave days when the master's word was law. Put more bluntly, it would read, "Bring me that paper," and that is the way Mr. Jones hears it. It isn't necessary to show courtesy to a slave. The second question implies co-operation, consideration, a joint undertaking in which Mr. Jones has a choice and a right to make requests of the supervisor.

Both requests will undoubtedly secure the course of study for the supervisor, but the results will be different. In the first case, Mr. Jones will probably mutter, "Who does that so and so think he is? My turn will come some day." The second question will probably elicit the reaction, "I don't mind," or "He is okay."

Manners are forms of behavior through which a person shows respect for others; supervisory disregard of manners means to the staff members lack of respect for their feelings.

Why Is Prompt Action Important?

When a question is raised or a proposal is made, the supervisor with lagniappe does not leave the issue in doubt. He gives a decision or he tells when action will be taken. He does not say, "We will see about it," or "That is a good idea. We will think it over." Rather, he replies, "This is a good implementation of our accepted policy. We will do that," or "I don't know. We will get an answer from the Board when it meets next Monday," or "No, we cannot do it under present policy. If you

wish to secure a change in policy, you should ask the agenda committee for a place on the next faculty meeting program."

The supervisor who allows his docket to become so full that he cannot take prompt action or give definite information about the time a decision will be made is not *pushing* the job. He is letting the work control him and is thereby losing the respect of his staff.

During World War II Americans were made extremely conscious of the phrase "too little and too late" as it applied to winning military victories. It applies as well to many supervisory situations. Too frequently supervisors have said to themselves, "Leave it alone and it will work itself out."

Delay may be chosen as a tactic but the choice should be made only after a careful examination of the facts of the case and the possible solutions. A supervisor cannot afford to procrastinate on personnel problems.

A shop teacher went to his principal with a request for more adequate equipment. Some of the students in his class did not have work places. The principal stated he would see what could be done. Three weeks went by and nothing happened. At a dinner party, the shop teacher met the industrial arts supervisor for the city and asked what progress was being made on the request for new benches. The supervisor had never received the request. The principal had procrastinated and had lost the respect and loyalty of one of his staff.

Two days after the teacher's conversation with the supervisor, the new benches arrived, and the principal made his second mistake. He became angry, not at himself but at the teacher he *had failed*. He assigned the equipment to another shop teacher and left the man with the incomplete shop still inadequately equipped. When the fellow who had made the original request for equipment asked for an explanation, he was told, "Because you went over my head." The principal had not only lost the respect of one of his teachers, he had made an enemy.

Theoretically, the teacher should not have gone over his supervisor's head, but he felt impelled to do so because of the principal's inactivity. Delay in fulfilling a request for needed

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equipment had set in motion a chain of events that resulted in an unnecessary break with a member of the staff. And the results do not stay localized. The story of the principal's inadequacy and unfairness spread rapidly through the staff and staff faith in the ability of its leadership took a downward plunge.

Not taking action or not securing action quickly on a request is another way of denying the importance of a staff member and his wishes.

Closely allied to being prompt is the keeping of promises. Failure to live up to promises concerning pay raises, days off, new supplies, class assignments, or promotions completely breaks the staff's faith in the official leader. The best he can hope is that they will think he is unreliable. Most will classify him as a liar and a cheat. It is better not to gain approval than to obtain it through promises that may not be kept. This bit of lagniappe is so essential that without it the whole structure of the supervisor's human relations crashes.

How Does the Action Appear to Others?

One of the ways for a supervisor to be sure that his decisions are based on the human factor is to constantly put himself in the other person's position as he makes decisions. How does the other person feel? How will he react? Will he think the decision is fair? What aspects of the situation does the teacher see that the supervisor does not? What are the special problems involved in the situation for the teacher that do not touch the supervisor?

William Mason of Hillsdale High School illustrates the point. Mr. Mason is 35, with a wife and two children. He received his M.A. from the state university 13 years ago and has been teaching social studies in Hillsdale ever since. He spends his summers working in a local department store. When the chairmanship of the social studies department opened, Mr. Mason fully expected to receive the appointment. Instead, it was given to Mr. Wood, a new man in the system, aged 30, with eight years

of experience in three experimental schools, and with a year's work toward his doctorate in the social studies.

From the supervisor's standpoint, Mr. Wood is better qualified; he has more training and more varied experience of the type the principal wants. But how does the appointment look to Mason? He has seniority. He has been doing what was expected of him. He has given his youth and his energy to this department. He feels he has earned the headship. To Mason, Mr. Wood is well qualified but he is an outsider and he should not be appointed unless there is something wrong with Mason's work.

The supervisor has two responsibilities; one to his staff and the other to the pupils and public who want the best possible school. Both should be constantly considered in determining how to proceed. And the supervisor should not assume that he is the only member of the staff concerned about pupil welfare. One supervisor solved a problem similar to that which the principal at Hillsdale faced in a manner satisfactory to his staff. The head of the department resigned. The supervisor called the staff together and asked them to formulate a set of qualifications they wanted their head to have and to make recommendation of personnel he should consider.

In this case good human relations practices and good personnel practices ran parallel. If Mason's principal had followed such a procedure, Mr. Mason would have been able to evaluate his chances, and if he questioned the final result the principal would have had a basis on which to discuss the appointment with Mason. Decisions would have been based on faculty thinking as well as on the administrator's standards.

If a supervisor can place himself in the other person's position, accept his values, and still believe the action to be taken is fair, he can proceed with a high degree of assurance that the results will be satisfactory to all.

A teacher in a large high school gave the following description of her supervisor:

The vice principal walks around with a little black book and

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peeks into all the rooms to see if everyone is working. If the class is not absolutely quiet, he feels that something is wrong and the little black book is brought into play.

How would the vice principal have described his action? Would he say that he was maintaining discipline or keeping teacher personnel files? Does he see himself as a powerful figure with a whip to control others? Certainly no teacher would interpret such action as anything but spying and lack of faith.

The official leader's response to praise given to the school program may look different to the teacher than it does to the leader. When the superintendent of schools remarks, "Your physical education program is one of the finest in the city," the insecure principal may reply, "I try to make it that way," instead of saying, "Yes, John White is excellent. He is doing his best to improve the health and physical condition of our students. We are fortunate to have him on our staff." The principal may consider the first remark an indication to the superintendent that he is accepting his responsibility, but to a teacher who hears the remark it will appear to be taking credit for someone else's work.

Other actions indicate to teachers an official leader's willingness or lack of willingness to share credit. If the principal or department head always insists on giving the report for work in their unit, it is another way of saying, "I take all the credit around here." Such things as having all letters go out over his signature, or having his picture first in the school yearbook are straws in the wind. Ninety-five per cent of the teachers in a group studying school yearbooks agreed that the practice of having large pictures of the principal and department heads at the front of the yearbook did not truly exemplify the democratic spirit of the schools, but they insisted that the sponsors of the yearbooks would not dare allow the pupils to change that form. The school administration in their schools would not permit it. Perhaps these opinions were wrong but the principals and department heads of those teachers had

never demonstrated sufficient sharing of the credit for the sponsors even to consider allowing pupils to move pictures of the official leaders out the featured place.



Sharing the credit pays royal dividends. One of the most effective means of motivation is giving recognition for accomplishment. A supervisor who tries "losing his life so that he may find it" will never return to the old procedures. He will find that by sharing credit he receives even more credit. The person with whom he shared the credit becomes an ardent booster and the person who hears the supervisor share the credit recognizes him for the competent, confident person he is.

Omissions may be misinterpreted as much as actions. Some official leaders assume that the staff knows that the work it is doing is good, and that people of professional stature have their own standards and do not need the assurance of another person that they are doing a good job. Many teachers will testify that they haven't been told that any phase of their work was good in the last ten years.

Studies in the industrial field, referred to previously, have revealed the importance of the worker's knowing that management is interested in him, in how he feels and how he produces. If the supervisor could let the average teacher see he is as much concerned about the results of teaching as about the record of the football team, the vitality and virility of many classrooms would be increased. It would be interesting to know how

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much of the superiority of the product of the experimental schools in the Eight-Year Study could have been attributed to extra teacher effort expended because the teacher knew the administration was concerned with the type of teaching he was doing.

The signs that a supervisor respects other people and believes in their worth are small but revealing. Having books on the desk that describe democratic practices, or making speeches that stress the need for respecting human personality cannot build a staff's faith in its official leader. Actions speak louder than words. The responses a supervisor gives in living situations determine for the staff the type of person he is. Hour by hour he shows whether he believes in people and is concerned with their feelings and desires. Seeking to improve human relations in a staff is related closely to building morale. A supervisor helps people get the satisfactions they want from a job as he works for mutual respect and consideration among the members of the group.

How Does Counseling Help?

Relationships improve as tensions decrease. A group in which the members are tense, emotionally disturbed, or under strain cannot have good human relations. Actions by official leaders to reduce tension are steps to secure better human relations in a group.

Teachers are under tension. In our society, one out of every fifteen persons spends part of his lifetime in an institution for the improvement of mental health. Teachers are no exceptions. Such factors as specialized behavior standards for teachers, rules against married teachers, and lack of acceptance and appreciation by the community serve to aggravate existing mental and emotional disturbances in members of the profession. Teachers need all the help they can get in maintaining their emotional health.

Official leaders can help decrease the emotional tension of

teachers by serving as counselors. Western Electric, through its experimentation with counseling service for employees, found that counselors whose sole function was to listen decreased the tensions and worries of workers. The emotional climate of the plants involved was improved by making counselors available.

Supervisors can *listen* to teachers' concerns.

If it is accepted that a function of official leadership is to set the emotional tone of the school, counseling becomes a basic responsibility of supervision. All other activities at the school are built upon the foundation of the faculty's good mental health. *Supervisors must realize that they cannot hope to work with the teacher on the improvement of teaching unless other worries and disturbances are decreased to the point where they are not paramount in the teacher's mind.*

Teachers are not supermen; they are hampered by the same worries, fears, and anxieties that handicap other people. They need someone to whom they can go to talk out their concerns. They need: someone that they feel understands them and their problems and sympathizes with them in their difficulties; someone with whom they can talk out their concerns, confident that the person will not hold their ideas against them; someone they trust. They need a friend. Teachers do not turn to someone they distrust, someone that they cannot respect as an individual, someone they feel is lacking in warmth and sympathy. A supervisor, to be a good counselor to his teachers, must be the type of person they want for a friend. He must be approachable, genuine, and sensitive to the way others feel.

A supervisor cannot force troubled teachers to come to him. The results would not be good if he could. He can only display concern for how they feel and a willingness to listen.

Not all the troubles he hears will be connected with the school program or the school buildings. They may deal with home problems, social problems, or financial problems. All may be equally important. A problem is as important as the teacher thinks it is.

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The only way the school can progress is by improving the teachers who are in the school. Any procedure that the supervisor uses to make his teachers better all-around people is valuable in improving the school and the instruction in the school. Emotionally disturbed teachers are not good teachers. When a teacher is worried about a love affair, a sick child at home, or the way the supervisor acts, he cannot give his full attention to doing a good job of teaching. Further, counseling for teachers is a way of improving the standards for sound mental health for the coming generation. Teachers who are mentally disturbed are not good counselors and guides for their students. The emotional atmosphere that teachers provide for students reflects the way they themselves are treated by the supervisors.

Not all supervisors are trained as counselors. *They do not have to be.* There are certain things they can do, certain rules they can follow, that will enable them to fill a genuine need.

The supervisor's chief function as a counselor is to enable tense persons to talk out their problems and to help them work toward a solution of their problems. He makes no pretense of giving psychiatric aid.

When a teacher has a problem and wants to discuss it, the supervisor may be able to use certain helpful procedures that have

been worked out by counselors.

1. The supervisor should not display any kind of authority. He is a listener. He is not there to give advice or to tell the other person what to do.

2. He listens in a patient and friendly but intelligently critical manner. "Critical" should not be misinterpreted. By "critical" it is meant that the listener follows the presentation, raises questions that help to clear up points that the narrator may be



overlooking, items that may be important which the teacher has not correctly evaluated.

3. The questions that the supervisor asks should be of a type that relieve the teacher's fear and anxiety about discussing his problems. Many times when people are troubled, they have difficulty in talking about their trouble. They want to talk but they hate to tell other people the things that are bothering them. Questions have to come out of sympathy and understanding.

4. An important type of question for a counselor to ask is one that gets at the implicit assumption that the individual is making in thinking about a situation, an assumption he may not be willing to make explicit. Questions that get at basic reasons are the kind that help people think through their problems for themselves. However, such questions should not be too direct. Neither should they be asked as though the person who asks the questions has greater understanding than the person telling the story.

5. One of the techniques of the counselor is to praise people for reporting facts or feelings adequately. Such praise leads the story teller to analyze situations more carefully, and to be fair to himself and others involved.

6. Another important technique is never to argue, even though the supervisor feels that the teacher is wrong. In a counseling situation a supervisor should never discuss a point in an attempt to prove that the teacher is wrong. The supervisor's function is to encourage the other person to get his problem off his chest, not to solve the problem for him. In fact, there is no need for the interview to end with any solution at all, unless a solution develops through the teacher's new insight.

7. Last, the supervisor should never give advice or moral admonition. Whenever the supervisor steps into the role of moral adviser, he loses whatever chance he had of helping the other person. He gives the teacher feelings of guilt, or at least intensifies any feelings of guilt that the teacher has. In such a position, he cannot enable the teacher to work out problems for

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himself. Instead, the teacher becomes concerned about working out solutions that satisfy the supervisor. Instead of relieving the teacher's tension, which is the purpose of such activity, the counselor increases the tension by having the individual become concerned about satisfying the counselor.

The foregoing statements should not be interpreted to mean that the supervisor can help all teachers. Some teachers are too mentally ill for him to help. His function is to refer such teachers to the type of psychiatric aid they need. If a supervisor is really going to be effective in making referrals, he must first of all have the confidence of his teachers; otherwise, they will reject his suggestion that they secure competent advice. Further, if he has teachers who talk through with him the things that are bothering them, he will be in a much better position to know which teachers are in need of assistance that he is not qualified to provide.

What Can Be Done To Decrease Staff Conflict?

Studies made in industry, reported by Roethlisberger and Dickinson, have found that groups of workers are more concerned about the way their fellows feel toward them than they are about the opinion of the official leader. A group approach must be used in promoting better human relations within a group. The steps advocated in the first two sections of this chapter will be ineffective unless they are a part of a group-wide approach to the problem. Working conditions must be so organized that association among members of a group is encouraged, that no individuals within the group are placed in the position where they cannot be accepted and respected by others, that leadership of members of the group is used as a way of carrying out group purposes, that official leadership becomes a force working with members of the group rather than a force working in opposition to leadership that exists or may emerge. *Activities that promote a sense of belonging together*

and that increase social interchange among the staff are efforts to improve human relationships.

The fact that has not been faced yet in this analysis is that a staff may not be a group. A staff may be composed of several groups in conflict with each other. Sometimes the staff may be divided into the younger teachers versus the older teachers. At one Long Island high school the division was so great that the older teachers refused to attend staff parties to which the younger teachers were invited. When a new principal went to the school, he found it necessary to hold two parties in order to meet all the staff socially. The staff may even be divided along religious lines. In a school in a large eastern city about half the faculty was Catholic and about half Jewish. The groups were very distinct. Jewish teachers ate in one teachers' dining room and Catholic teachers in another. When department heads were appointed, the administration attempted to maintain a balance of power.

An official leader cannot ignore such divisions in the staff if he wants to develop a group with common purposes. He must take steps to reduce the cleavages.

The first step is to become fully informed about the type of divisions that exist and the reasons for them. In many cases the groups within the staff persist simply because they have been accepted and nothing has been done about them.

In the faculty that was divided along Jewish-Catholic lines, one member of the faculty, a Jewish girl, decided to do something to improve the situation. She began to eat some of her lunches in the dining room frequented by the Catholic teachers and invited some of the Catholic teachers to eat with her in the lunchroom used by the Jewish teachers. It worked. The idea spread to other teachers. The girl followed this innovation by another. She invited some of the other teachers to visit her classes and in return was asked to visit theirs. She made a point of crossing the religious dividing line. She even invited the principal to see her classes, something the principal confessed had not happened in that school in five years.

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The breakdown of the two groups in the faculty started because one member refused to accept the two groups as a necessity. Official leadership must make the same assumption. It must start with the belief that the staff can become one group and work for that end.

One phase of the process has already been described in the discussion of the teacher who disagrees. Official leadership must recognize differences as desirable and must seek to have the staff accept and value differences as a source of motivation. Within this framework there is a place for all in the same group. If differences are unacceptable, more than one group is inevitable.

Arguments about basic philosophy and fundamental values should be avoided until the staff has begun to have a sense of unity. *If attention can be focused on a definite problem, and if the staff can think through to a solution, the first steps toward building a group are taken.* After a firm foundation of such successful experiences together has been established, the group will be able to examine philosophic differences without the danger of splintering into several groups again. Agreement on common purposes is reached through group solution of problems important to the group.

In the attempt to help a staff become a group, the official leader's function is to bring people together and to guide the group process in such a way that all involved will have ample opportunity to reach mutually acceptable decisions. The next section of this book will deal with that process.

If, after a staff has become a group, serious disagreement and conflict arise among members, the official leader should offer his services in seeking an agreement. *If they are accepted, the leader's function is to help the disagreeing parties to isolate the real issues, to marshal the facts that bear on them, to ask each side to advance possible solutions, and to suggest additional possible bases of agreement.*

Another type of problem is disagreement between staff members. Jealousies may arise that are not based on differences over

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values. Feelings of inferiority, resentment of status or salary differences, an intense desire for recognition may all be driving forces that cause one staff member to initiate aggressive action toward another. And then misunderstandings develop.

If such a conflict becomes intense and if no efforts are made to resolve it, faculty time is wasted and unity is destroyed. In the extreme, the faculty is divided into two groups. More commonly, small groups form around the central personalities and each small group attempts to sway the total faculty to its point of view. Discussions of policy and new programs become campaigns in which the ultimate goal is to win rather than to discover what is the best course to be followed.

An official leader cannot stand aside and wait until the group with the best strategy ultimately wins. The complete victory of either side will decrease the contribution of the losers. Manipulation of the total faculty by a minority is no more desirable for the development of the total group than is manipulation by the officially appointed leader—less so, because responsibility cannot be officially fixed. Attempts of individuals within the faculty to injure each other can be as repressive to the release of the potential of a group as retaliatory or aggressive acts of the official leader.

The supervisor should encourage the individuals involved to attempt to talk out the problem. If neither will take the first step and risk the chance of a rebuff, the official must do it for them. He must call a meeting at which he asks questions that attempt to get each to describe his feelings about himself and the other person, and that provide opportunities for each to state what he considers the essential differences and what he thinks can be done to resolve them.

If no progress is made, the supervisor may find it necessary to remind each of his responsibility to the group. The leader cannot tell each what to think of the other but he can insist that each examine his own action in terms of its effect on the group and that each desist from actions that are detrimental.

If in this process the disputants do not achieve an under-

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standing and if the issue is of major importance, the supervisor should try to get the two parties to submit the problem to an impartial committee for decision. The issue will not resolve itself by pretending it does not exist. Open discussion will be more wholesome than unofficial political manipulation in the faculty. If the group refuses to allow any issue to become a personal matter and if it recognizes any major issues as a threat to the life of the group, conflicts within the staff become merely another problem of group living in which no individuals have face to save.

What Should the Principal's Relationship to Other Supervisors Be?

Sometimes lack of harmony in a faculty exists because two supervisors, the principal and the general or special supervisor, do not have their working relationships clearly defined. Each believes he has responsibility for the success of the program and attempts to influence the direction it will take. Teachers are caught in the struggle for control.

The functions of all official leaders should be known to the staff. Where there is conflicting authority, the program and the morale of those involved will suffer.

We release the potential of group members by increasing the degree to which each is responsible for his own self-direction. A pupil learns more when he assumes more responsibility for his learning. A teacher is more effective when he is responsible for making the final decision on what constitutes an appropriate teaching procedure for his class. An official leader releases the potential of a teacher when he shares his authority to make decisions with the person who is to take the action.

Although a teacher should have the authority to decide what is an appropriate teaching procedure, he is not completely free to do as he pleases. His job is to promote the types of growth the system has established as its goals. If the principle of shared responsibility has been followed, the goals sought have been de-

terminated by planning committees composed of parents, citizens of the community, pupils, teachers, and administrators. If a teacher accepts a job in the system, he assumes a responsibility for promoting the goals that have been set up. His teaching procedures and his judgment should be evaluated by the extent to which his students approach these goals.

The principal, too, is responsible for the program in his building, and must abide by the goals that have been established for the system. Supervisors, general and special, are available as consultants and helpers, but they cannot direct the work of individual teachers in a manner contrary to the wishes of the principal. If they do, the principal cannot be held responsible for the program in his building.

If a superintendent told each principal how to operate his building or each teacher how to teach, he would be depriving them of their responsibilities. *Instead, he should hold each principal responsible for developing a program in his building that produces the kinds of pupil growth sought.*

To assist principals, the superintendent may make available supervisors with special skills and knowledges. The principal may draw on these supervisors for advice or ask them to assist teachers who are facing difficult problems. But the supervisors should not be made responsible for the program itself. If the program in a building is not getting desirable results, the superintendent should hold the principal accountable and should require him to demonstrate that he has taken steps to improve the situation and that he has used the available resources.

Supervisors should be present at the planning sessions of the superintendent and the principals. Otherwise, they will not feel that they have a vital part in the program, and they will lack the information they need to be of assistance to the principals. If supervisors are to perform most effectively in improving instruction, they must be fully informed and an integral part of the planning.

A major city of the United States employed forty supervisors. During a ten-year period the superintendent did not hold a

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meeting with the supervisors. They were not included in the principal's meetings. At one time during the period they were told to direct the programs in their areas. Again, they were told to serve as consultants and to stay in their offices until called. Difficulties arose with various principals, and personality and friendship determined the use made of the supervisors in each school. The supervisory positions became dead-end jobs in which people lost hope and faith.

The relationship between principals and supervisors needs careful examination and discussion. Supervisors are not errand boys for principals, nor are they the bosses of principals. Supervisors and principals are persons of equal professional ability and skill. Supervisors perform a special function. They are consultants to be called in to help analyze problem situations, to try out remedial measures, and to evaluate results. They can be called upon for advice and suggestions, but they abandon their function when they try to sell or convince. *The responsibility for decision rests with the principal and his staff.*

When each principal is responsible for the program in his school, the subject-matter supervisor serves as a resource person for principal and teachers.

The principal of a high school in a southern city was concerned with the quality of the intramural program in the school. He asked the physical education specialist to come to his office to discuss intramural sports. During the conversation, he requested a set of criteria by which to judge a high-school intramural program, and the physical education supervisor agreed to prepare and send it.

A week later, the principal called a meeting of the physical education staff and representatives of the student council, and invited the physical education supervisor to be present. He submitted the proposed criteria to the meeting for analysis. Some objection was raised to some of the criteria. In the course of the meeting, some students and teachers began to apply the criteria to the intramural program in the school and the head of the physical education department asked the supervisor to join a future department meeting in which an evaluation of the intramural program would be started.

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The physical education supervisor revised the proposed criteria for intramural programs and placed it in the system-wide curriculum bulletin, in the hope that other principals or departments would be sufficiently challenged to request a meeting to discuss them.

The special subject supervisor's success depends upon his competency in his field and his way of working with people. If he does not show insight in his discussions with principals and staff, he will be ignored. He cannot succeed simply because he bears the label supervisor. If he does not present his ideas in a friendly, relaxed manner, he will not be taken seriously or called again. We build defenses against someone who threatens us by his manner or by his use of knowledge. *The supervisor's participation must convince others that his knowledge is a tool at their service rather than a club to force conformity to a pattern they cannot understand or accept.*

Sometimes the supervisor has a delicate consultative function to perform. He may feel it necessary to call shortcomings of the school to the attention of the principal. Whatever his relationship with the principal, this task is dangerous. If we make generalizations about the situation and then attempt to document them with specifics, we almost always fail. If we approach the problem by proposing joint examination and evaluation, we have a better chance of succeeding. If we can make the study of the situation a part of action research designed to improve the program, we are less likely to fail than if we collect data by ourselves to use in making a judgment about another's work, or to convince him that he ought to change.

There may be times when a special subject supervisor is not used in a school. The principal may lack vision or may be antagonistic to the individual serving as supervisor. If the program in the school is excellent, the supervisor may not be needed and should be left free to use his time more effectively in another school. If the program is poor, the supervisor is dependent upon the superintendent who is ultimately responsible and to

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whom the principal is accountable. If the supervisor is not able to report progress in a certain school, the superintendent is the individual who can and must open the door to improvement. He is the one to ask the principal for evidence of progress and for an accounting of how the available resources are being used. If the principal develops confidence in a supervisor, the supervisor feels free to help individual teachers.

A Kentucky supervisor spent fifty hours his first semester on the job talking with one principal who had some doubts and who apparently liked to talk. But as a result of this exploration of ideas and the mutual respect that resulted, the supervisor was able to work effectively in this school. The reputation he established for helping teachers in this school spread throughout the country and opened doors and invitations to help in other schools.

The supervisor finds it hard to be effective in working with a teacher when the principal resents his efforts. In the day-to-day contact in the school, the principal's casual belittling or slighting remarks about the supervisor's assumed importance can breed in teachers a feeling of insecurity and doubt, if not downright suspicion and hostility.

To secure the best results, the supervisor should visit a teacher only at the teacher's request. If the principal believes in the supervisor, if the teacher's contacts with the supervisor in group meetings have been easy and non-threatening, and if other teachers have testified to the supervisor's worth and friendliness, the chances are good that teachers will request his assistance. *But if the supervisor shows aggression, a desire for power, or feelings of superiority or insecurity, teachers will hesitate to establish working relationships with him.*

If the working relationship between principals and supervisors is not satisfactory, the superintendent must assume responsibility and take leadership in improving the situation. The superintendent is the only individual with the authority to make decisions in this area. Principals and supervisors can only negotiate when each individual feels free to withdraw if

he feels that his personal interests are being jeopardized. When the superintendent uses his authority and is willing to share the decision-making process, a control exists that holds the group together until agreement is reached. When it is not clear that the superintendent is assuming responsibility for reaching a decision, persons without authority can only hope that cooperative impulses will prevail.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Take the first step in being friendly?
2. Smile frequently?
3. Remember and use names?
4. Show interest in the out-of-school activities of faculty members?
5. Remain easily accessible to the staff?
6. Avoid taking special privileges?
7. Act politely and courteously?
8. Avoid keeping people waiting? If delay is unavoidable, secure agreement of the other person or postpone the conference?
9. Ask persons if they are willing to assume responsibility?
10. Take prompt action on requests?
11. Keep a record of promises and live up to them?
12. Attempt to see actions and decisions from the other person's point of view?
13. Give credit to the persons responsible when the school receives praise?
14. Let people know when their work is good?
15. Seek to discover how each teacher feels about his job and his out-of-school life?
16. In counseling:
 - a. Listen willingly?
 - b. Avoid any evidence of authority or show of knowing the answers?

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- c. Ask questions that relieve anxiety about discussing a problem, and that get at the implicit assumptions the teacher is making about the situation?
 - d. Give praise for reporting facts accurately?
 - e. Avoid giving personal advice?
 - f. Refer basic disturbances to a psychiatrist?
17. Become fully informed about the social structure of the staff?
18. Refuse to accept the assumption that conflicting groups in a staff are unavoidable?
19. Avoid staff arguments over basic philosophy until group unity has been achieved through solving some immediate problems.
20. Offer to assist in seeking agreement when disagreements arise in group?
21. Ask disagreeing segments of the staff to submit their problem to the total group for arbitration if mediation fails?
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For Further Exploration

The place of human relations in supervision is receiving more attention every year. At least two entire books, J. A. Bartky, *Supervision As Human Relations* (New York: D. C. Heath Company, 1953) and W. A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), have been devoted to this problem. Kenneth Benne and Bozidar Muntyan have collected readings that deal with the place of feelings in programs of change in *Human Relations in Curriculum Development* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951). Rogers' *Client Centered Therapy* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951) describes the type of work situation in which the potential of staff members can be realized.

Supervision as Skill in Group Process



The whole is greater than the sum of its parts. If a number of individuals are able to coordinate their efforts and work as a team, they can accomplish much more than the same individuals working separately.

Coordination of human effort can be achieved in many ways and the official leader of a group must seek the procedure that is most effective in getting the desired results .

If it is accepted that persons contribute more when they have a part in establishing purposes, planning procedures, and evaluating results, the official leader must help a group of individuals establish processes through which they can participate in these activities.

Chapter 8

How Can the Power of a Group Be Released?

Official leadership must be judged by the contribution it makes to releasing the potential ability and power of the group it serves. A supervisor must determine the type of relationship with the staff that will secure the greatest amount of productivity and then work to achieve it.

What Relationship with the Staff Does the Official Leader Want?

In his decision concerning the type of relationship he wants with the staff, the official leader must determine whether he wants to have "power over" people.

Some supervisors attain their position through examination or appointment, without any real understanding of their function. Through observation of supervisors they have known, they have drawn the conclusion that their job is to decide, to direct, and to rate each teacher on how well he contributes. Such supervisors believe that they have been promoted because of superior intelligence and performance, and that their status should be respected. They feel that their word should carry more weight than that of a classroom teacher and that any questioning of their statements is a threat to their status. Closely related to this misconception of function is the understanding of the meaning of authority as "power over." When a supervisor feels that authority means "power over" others, he quickly isolates himself from the group, since he believes that he must be above the group.

In a "power over" situation, the supervisor makes no effort to hide his authority. He stresses it. He uses his position and his authority to get people to do the things he thinks need to be done. No attempt is made here to classify the quality of his purposes. Let us assume that they are good. He feels that he knows what a good learning situation is and that he has insight as to how teachers can provide this type of learning for youngsters. He takes the steps he believes necessary to get these conditions for students in his school.

A leader in a "power over" situation wants people to give unquestioning support to his policy. To question is to challenge, and a challenger must be subdued. The supervisor makes the decisions and tells the staff what to do. Certain members of the staff are delegated certain responsibilities. If they do not do what they are told, they are punished by such means as reprimand, decrease in authority, failure to receive an increase, or, if the offense is serious enough, replacement. "Little black books," rating blanks, and other means of registering deviations from duty become tools of the supervisor.

The leader can control through fear or through respect. Either people must be afraid that they will be punished for not carrying out the wishes of the leader or they must respect the leader so much that they will not think of disobeying his wishes. Both are dictatorial types of control.

One of the results of such power is having group members behave as the leader wishes only when he knows about it. But the leader cannot always be present. Those who fear him least or respect him least begin to loaf on the job. A spy system results. Discipline can be maintained only by having a channel through which information is supplied to the leader.

In a "power over" situation, the leader is forced to see that no one else is gaining too much power. If someone in the group becomes too powerful, the leader's authority will be jeopardized. The leader must guard against too much communication among the members of the staff. Out of situations in which staff members have an opportunity to exchange opinion, new loyal-

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ties and new respects develop. Too much respect for another member of the staff is a challenge to the authority of the leader.

One of the difficulties of the "power over" leadership lies in securing new ideas. The leader must rely entirely on his own intelligence. He may try to open channels of communication with the members of his staff, but the ideas that he gets will deal only with ways of implementing his plan. No staff member will dare to challenge the leader's blueprint. To make such a challenge is to risk punishment. To accept such a challenge is to jeopardize authority.

It is obvious that something is wrong with the assumption that leadership and authority consist of maintaining "power over" people. A "power over" approach decreases the possibility of releasing the full power of the group. It limits the potential accomplishment of the group. Some other assumption must be more productive of obtaining the type of relationship a leader wants to have with his fellow human beings and of obtaining better ways of tapping the talents of the group.

Out of the research into group dynamics and democratic ways of working have come helpful suggestions. It has been found that: *A group with a harsh, dominating official leader is characterized by intense competition, lack of acceptance of all members, buck-passing, avoidance of responsibility, unwillingness to cooperate, aggression among members and toward persons outside the group, irritability, and a decrease in work when*

the supervisor is absent. A group with a benevolent autocrat for an official leader loses initiative, shows regression to childlike dependence, becomes increasingly submissive, does not continue individual development, cannot accept added responsibility easily. A group with an official leader who exerts no leadership is disinterested, indifferent, lacks purpose or goals, obtains no sense of achievement, and fails to produce. A



group in which the official leader concentrates his efforts on helping the persons for whom he is responsible to operate as a group is characterized by cooperation, enthusiasm, acceptance of greater responsibility, a sense of importance of the work being done, and a recognition among members of the worth of each other

The fourth of these types of relationship between the official leader and the staff seems to offer the greatest amount of promise for releasing the full power of a staff.

What Happens to the Official Leader's Power under the Group Approach?

Under the group approach to leadership, a leader is not concerned with getting and maintaining personal authority. His chief purpose is to develop group power that will enable the group to accomplish its goal. He does not conceive of his power as something apart from the power of the group. He is concerned with developing the type of working relationships that will give him "power with" the group.

If the supervisor makes the "power with" approach, he begins by having the group members plan their purposes together. As problems arise in the organization of the group and in the steps taken to reach goals, the supervisor expends his effort in thinking of ways in which the group can attack the problem, not of ways in which he can influence the group to accept his opinion. The chief questions for the group to answer become: What is the job? How can we do it better? In answering these questions, the members of the group find that they are taking orders from the situation rather than from the supervisor.

If a faculty is governed by the situation, no one has power over anyone else. The group decides who will exercise which functions on the basis of skill and training. The supervisor participates in the discussion, exercises his full intelligence, and gives the group the benefit of his best thinking. But his thinking

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is tested just as carefully as is the thinking of any other member of the group. He does not expect his ideas to be accepted as official rulings.

An official ruling under such an approach becomes the statement of the group's final decision. After a group has given full consideration to the ideas and the proposed solutions of all members, consensus is sought. Wherever possible, decision is delayed until consensus is reached. If time does not permit, as much agreement as possible is attained and the dissenting members of the group are asked to go along with the majority decision, with the understanding that the policy will be reconsidered if experience indicates that it is unsatisfactory.

An executive decision is only a moment in the total process of the solution of the problem. It is the final statement of policy that the official leader is asked to administer. *The solution begins with a clear definition of the problem, involves analysis of the factors of the situation, is based on procedure formulated by group decision, is stated as an official decision, and is implemented by the activities agreed upon by the group members as their responsibility in carrying out the decision.*

In such a situation, authority and responsibility are derived from function, not from delegation or position. For example, if the faculty is confronted with a problem of mental hygiene, it calls in a specialist or refers the decision to the best-trained member of the staff. The staff accepts his decision, not because he is the person invested with authority by right of his position, but because the group respects his training and background and deems him the member best qualified to render an intelligent decision. Under such a procedure the official leader does not lose power. He is free to utilize all the resources of the staff. He realizes that he is performing his function best when he calls to the fore the best authority in the group. Authority is identified with training and information; it is used for "power with," not "power over."

If the staff does not agree upon the best authority to accept, the question is open once more to group problem-solving.

Turning to the best-trained person is only a short cut in interpretation of data.

When a faculty operates on the basis of "power with" the supervisor, many persons have the opportunity to lead. Any contribution to the attainment of group goals is accepted as leadership. Each faculty member is called upon to exert leadership in proportion to his special skills and place in the faculty. Under such a method of operation, the supervisor's function is to coordinate the activities of the group. In other words, he is focusing the power of the group. He creates group power through coordination of activities.

Group power is the total capacity of the group, centered upon the attainment of definite goals and operating through relationships built up under the guidance of the supervisor. A real leader in this type of faculty is the one who can help the group organize its knowledge, make it available to all members, and use it to exert the full power of the group in the solution of problems. An effective supervisor is one who can relate the different wills and abilities of group members so that they become a driving, unified force. The problem for the supervisor is to learn how to develop power, not where to place it.

A good leader helps the members of his group feel increased responsibility. He enables teachers to attain importance by sharing with them responsibility for the program. He does not allow his position to interfere with the opportunity for others



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to assume responsibility. Even though final responsibility rests with the supervisor, teachers and committees are given full authority to carry out their own tasks. As a result, all have joint responsibility. It is a shared responsibility, not a division of responsibility among members of the staff. An official leader can share all his responsibility and authority. He is able to share it as he makes available opportunities to participate in the decisions on how it will be used.

The question of delegated authority vanishes under this approach. The total program of the school becomes the responsibility of the total staff, and the official leader looks upon himself as chairman of the group. When the school board or the community asks for an explanation of some phase of the school program, the official leader alone does not give it. He takes with him to explain the portion of the program under question the members of the staff who have primary responsibility for that phase of the program. By such a procedure, the official leader does not lose power or increase the vulnerability of his position. He increases his strength because his actions have the full support of his staff. The full power of the group is back of the position taken by the leader. When the total staff makes decisions that represent the best efforts of group intelligence, the supervisor is in a stronger position than when he makes decisions alone and asks group members to carry them out.

Following the "power with" concept, the leader is able to build group loyalty, a sense of personal responsibility for the accomplishment of group goals, and a unity of effort that are



impossible under the "power over" concept. He creates cooperative working relationships with the members of his staff rather than personal control over the actions of individual members.

Under the "power with" approach, there is actually greater control of individual staff members. If a group member decides to operate on his own as opposed to group purposes, the total pressure of group opinion is brought to bear to bring him back to group goals. The opinion of fellow workers is a much more effective control than is any action that can be taken by an administrative or supervisory official.

How Can a Group Operate to Release Its Full Power?

When the official leader decides he is going to work within the group, he is faced with the necessity of working cooperatively with people. In fact, he must become highly skilled in group processes in order that he may fulfill his major function of helping the group members to think, reach decisions, and take action together.

From the studies in the field of group dynamics, group process, and classroom method, educators are obtaining insight into the way groups operate effectively.

It must be recognized in all work with groups that a group does not start as a mature one. If the members of the staff have not had group work experience, the progress toward group maturity may be slow. Even where staff members are sophisticated in group processes, it will take time to develop group spirit and common concern. The more immature the group, the greater amount of direction it will be necessary for the official leader to exert. As quickly as possible, however, status leadership will want to pull into the background and allow group members to assume more and more responsibility. As more people have an opportunity to develop skill in group processes, the total group achieves more maturity.

A leader can tell whether his staff is attaining group maturity by the extent to which it moves in the direction of developing:

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a clear sense of direction; ability to improve upon its own procedure; and a high degree of satisfaction from the work process.

How should the official leader begin?

A framework is necessary. The group members need to know the boundaries within which they can work, the extent of responsibility and authority the group has. The official leader should be very definite with the staff concerning the decisions he can and will share. He should make clear the boundaries of his authority; each staff member should know the areas in which the supervisor can make decisions and the areas in which he cannot go beyond recommendations.

Operating under the "power with" concept, the supervisor shares all the authority that is given him in the situation. He cannot, in fairness to the group, share authority that he does not have. If he does, and if the group makes decisions that are reversed by outside controls, the group's confidence in itself and its power will be decreased. A supervisor cannot go beyond the rulings of the board of education or the state department of education. He cannot go beyond the mores of the community. It is possible, however, for the supervisor and the staff to decide what they want to recommend to governing boards or to the community. Recommendations issued as the result of group thinking will be more effective in securing acceptance by outside authority than will be the declarations of a single individual. Cooperative thinking with other groups involved will be even more effective.

There may be areas of his authority which an official leader is unwilling to share with his staff. If he is afraid to risk the results of group thinking on certain problems that he faces, he should make plain to the staff which decisions he is reserving for himself and his reasons for imposing the restrictions. The staff may or may not accept the official leader's thinking, but the results will be less disastrous to group operation and staff growth than if the leader were to pretend he had no reservations about sharing his decision-making authority and then to veto a decision of the group.

Time must be provided for thinking together. A staff does not become a group because a collection of individuals have been assigned to one building. It becomes a group as the members begin to develop common purposes and common values that tend to control the pattern of behavior of the individuals on the staff. *Common concerns, purposes, and values are reached through sharing.* There is no alternative. It takes time together. Official leaders must recognize that time spent on thinking together is not wasted; nor is it an indication that democratic processes are inefficient. It is the basis for effective and efficient work. The amount of time spent together can be decreased as the group continues as a unit, because the common concerns, purposes, and values will have been established and will need revision only in terms of new problems and solutions. But time together for solving group problems can never be eliminated completely as long as the staff remains a group.

However, discussion is only a part of a group's development. Experience together is an equally important element. The two must be combined. Without common experience to give common meanings, discussions may produce confusion through semantic difficulties. Action without time for analysis is likewise ineffective in developing a group. Unless there is opportunity to sit down together and interpret what is happening, the experiences may actually separate individuals because of the variety of interpretations. Experience provides common meanings only when there is analysis of it and agreement concerning it.

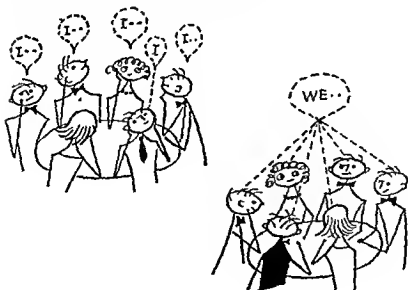
Let the staff know the method of work that is being used. This suggestion may sound as though the supervisor is using direction rather than cooperative thinking. But it is essential that the staff know the procedures they are following. Teachers need to understand group process if they are going to become enthusiastic participants in a group. The method of operation must be stated. Lack of definiteness will lead to hesitation and drawing back. One way to achieve this understanding is for the official leader to suggest a way of working. He should propose the best procedure that he knows and then open the

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meeting to other members of the group to propose suggestions for improvement in the plan that he has outlined. Quite likely, if this is the first experience the staff has had with that official leader, no supplementary ideas or alternate plans will be suggested. The group, not trusting its official leadership, may sit back and wait to see how he operates.

The opportunity for change of procedure must be maintained. Although group members may not suggest any variation from the plan of operation suggested by the status leader at the first meeting, these suggestions will come as soon as the members of the staff decide that the official leader can be trusted and means what he says. Suggestions for change in procedure indicate that the group is beginning to accept the leader.

During the initial stage of group development, the official leader must be very careful to keep the word "I" out of the picture if he wants the staff to start thinking of itself as a group. The emphasis needs to be placed on cooperative work. The use of "we" instead of "I" leads to integration of interests. The use of "I" produces a division—"My staff and I"—and encourages other people to think in individual terms.



Supervision as Skill in Group Process

An absolute requirement for the beginning group work is that a group problem be attacked first. A group does not exist unless it has a problem to solve. A problem gives a collection of people a purpose. Without the purpose there is no need for the members of a group to continue to associate themselves. The problem's solution is the common enterprise that requires thinking together, planning together, and taking action together.

The problem cannot be the supervisor's. It must be important to the staff if they are to be willing to spend time in solving it.

The supervisor must start where the staff is. If the staff agrees on the most important problems facing it, the situation is an easy one. If there is lack of agreement on problems, the staff is still not a group and time must be taken to help the staff reach agreement. As a temporary measure, the official leader should encourage the group to select a small problem on which there is general concern as a starting point for work. As the group works together on the problem, the members will develop a greater number of common concerns. As individuals have experience together, agreement on importance and priority of problems increases.

Although it is well to proceed cautiously until the staff has learned that the official leader's suggestions are not a command, the supervisor, as a member of the group, may make his concerns known. His comments may lift to the level of consciousness a problem that is bothering the staff.

The supervisor must stress faculty-planning sessions as a place in which ideas can be advanced without fear of embarrassment. He must recognize that certain members of the staff will be embarrassed by disagreement because their experience has led them to believe it is a mistake to advance an idea that is not accepted by the group. The leader will want to take steps to assist the group to understand that if people accept each other and want to help each other, ideas can be tested without anyone's being hurt.

If the staff has not had such an interchange of ideas, it is well to tone down criticism at first until people begin to feel safe

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with the official leader and with each other. Sharp criticism will hinder the emergence of group spirit.

The supervisor should keep in mind that agreement on hypotheses is more difficult and less clear-cut in group thinking than in individual thinking. Where forty or fifty people with different sets of values examine the same data, the chances of arriving at an agreement on a single hypothesis are much less than when one individual with one set of values examines the data. Group agreement on hypotheses have a degree of compromise in them.

How Should Decisions Be Reached?

The decision-making process is the most important phase of successful democratic leadership, because sharing decisions is the only control a democratic leader has. If he cannot get group members to participate in decision-making, help them to gain satisfaction from the process, and believe in the soundness of the decisions, he must resort to authoritarian procedures: he must either entice members of the group into behaving in the approved manner or else force them to do so.

When a problem has been identified, the next step is to define it and to explore its ramifications. This step involves analyzing the conditions of the school, making explicit the maladjustments of the situation, and advancing tentative solutions. In one high-school faculty no attempt is made to arrive at the solution of a problem when it is identified and defined. A subcommittee is appointed to collect data and to formulate a proposal. This proposal is then brought back to the faculty for evaluation and revision if necessary.

The official leader should *recognize that the first attempts to reach joint decisions in a group are tests of the leader*. As a result of past experience, various members of the group have different feelings about his sincerity in introducing the process. The leader should expect doubts and should welcome tests of his integrity.

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A basis for decision should be sought. Are there any common values that the group seeks to promote? In school faculties it is usually easy to secure verbal agreement that all staff members want to improve the welfare of children. Of course, the decision-making process may reveal that other values are more important to some staff members, but verbal agreement serves as a working basis at the start.

The issues should be clearly defined. Time should be spent in examining the problem before study is undertaken. Individuals may be asked to cite specific examples. Opportunity must be provided for each member of the group to state the issue as he sees it.

More than one possible solution should be examined. Ask the committee to propose several solutions and provide time for the group to discuss the pros and cons of each. Other members of the group should be free to make other proposals. Expression of all opinions should be sought. Opinions cannot be repressed. If they are not stated in the meeting, they will be expressed elsewhere. The leader should watch for unspoken disagreements and should encourage the members to express them.

Examination of the problem should be started early. Most issues can be resolved if there is sufficient time. Rushed decisions do not permit everyone concerned to study issues and solutions and to talk through differences. One of the leader's functions is to help the group develop machinery for determining problems far enough ahead so that there is time for study and discussion.

The official leader will want to encourage the group to seek consensus. If he allows decisions to be made on a simple majority basis, the group will not arrive at agreement on the problems they should investigate or on the ways of solving them. One way the leader can promote consensus is by taking straw votes, with the definite understanding that any member of the group is voting in terms of the way he sees the solution of the problem at the moment and is not in any way committing himself to a final decision on the issue. Straw votes serve two pur-

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poses: They reveal how nearly the group has arrived at consensus, and they isolate differences that are still unresolved. When the leader finds that disagreements exist, he can call for those who have voted against the proposal to state their reasons and then give the persons who have voted for it an opportunity to explain theirs. In this way a straw vote is a means of setting the stage for further analysis of the issue.

Sometimes consensus on the total solution will be impossible. In such a case, it is better to proceed with the portions of the proposal on which agreement has been reached.

The areas of disagreement should not be forgotten, however. They are not liabilities. They constitute the problems on which further study is needed. Through examination of the unresolved differences the faculty has an opportunity to gain new insight through mutual endeavor. If, however, the minority is forced to accept a program of which it disapproves, wholehearted support of its implementation will be lacking.

Any innovation on which there is not consensus should be considered as an experiment. It is a trial run from which evidence is collected to be used as the basis for a more intelligent decision. Whether or not the leader recognizes this condition, it does exist. The proponents and opponents will be looking for data to support their positions. If the group officially recognizes the experimental nature of the undertaking, an evaluation group can be appointed to collect more comprehensive data to be used in subsequent decisions.

In the majority of cases, the official leader will want to focus his attention on the process of reaching a decision rather than on getting one solution accepted. If he is firmly convinced that one solution is essential, he should surrender the chair and work for it openly. Such action is additional proof to the staff of the official leader's honesty.

Throughout his work with the faculty, the official leader should continually *put emphasis on what is right rather than on who is right*. As the group is encouraged to center upon what is

right, personalities and vested interests fade into the background.

In studying possible solutions, the official leader will suggest possibilities that he sees too. At first, he must emphasize that these are only possibilities, and not necessarily the course of action that should be accepted by the group.

Is the Veto Necessary?

To give group thinking any importance, the status leader must eliminate the veto. Many principals have felt that they could not eliminate the veto from their work with the group, but it really becomes an impossible instrument in a group that is operating cooperatively. As described in Appendix B, a principal who starts with the idea that he is going to use a veto will find that he cannot use it. If he has been unable to justify his point of view in faculty discussions, he will not be able to make his veto stick. As one principal stated it,

I have a vote and an important one, but only one. I suggest. I recommend. I try to persuade. I vigorously defend. But if my faculty doesn't understand, doesn't believe in, doesn't agree with my ideas, regardless of merit, my ideas haven't much chance of being carried out effectively—and so I wait. I continue to work vigorously for those things which I believe, those things which seem to me to be best for the young people with whom I work.

This statement illustrates why an official leader must state to his group that he will not use the veto. If he works as this man does, really thinking with his faculty, a veto is as ineffective as it is unnecessary. Holding it as an official club destroys most of the possibilities for sincere group work. If a group attacks a problem enthusiastically and arrives at an answer that is vetoed, it knows that the group study was a fake, a way of manipulating people.

The result is the same if the supervisor holds the group together until it accepts his hypothesis.

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A New Jersey junior high school faculty was assigned a new principal. The former principal had used good group process and teachers were accustomed to real participation in policy-making and planning. The new principal gave verbal allegiance to the procedure, but disagreement with him was a personal matter; he refused to let the group make a decision with which he disagreed even though the straw vote was as much as twenty to one against him. One of the faculty members finally said:

"It is no longer any use to participate in faculty planning sessions. We see they are used to manipulate us. The only thing to do is go back into our classrooms and teach and let the school program go bang. Yesterday after the faculty council meeting the principal stopped me in the auditorium and asked 'You are going along with my ideas, aren't you?'"

This statement from a strong, idealistic teacher is added evidence that the official leader must set the stage if group decision-making is to succeed. He must believe in group work and group thinking. If he doesn't want or understand group thinking and action, teachers will have to stage a revolution to get it, and most teachers find it easier to submit or to change positions than to declare war on the official leader.

What Can Be Done To Help the Group Feel Secure?

As the faculty moves into more use of group decisions and group responsibility, some insecurity may develop. Any change brings some tension. Supervisors can do certain things to help the group feel more secure during the transition.

In reaching a decision, much time must be spent on the what, the how, the when, and the who. The procedure to be followed will be definite even though the results may be in doubt. Those staff members who gain responsibility from knowing what their specific jobs are will have security.

Do something. If too much time is spent discussing before any action is taken, the group will conclude that discussion is useless, a waste of time. As soon as possible, one of the hypotheses agreed upon by the group should be selected and put into

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action on an experimental basis. All members of the staff should be encouraged to watch the results and participate in an evaluation of its worth. By the process of taking action the group will develop more faith in group work.

The leader must help the members of the group become aware of the process of interaction. Group efficiency must become a joint responsibility. Unless a group has control over its own actions and a responsibility for making them efficient, it has not really become a group; it is still directed and operated by the official leaders. Check lists of good group procedures against which the members of the group can check their own participation and group operation help group members to accept responsibility for the group operation. Asking some member of the group to keep a flow chart of the discussion which can be presented to the group for their consideration at the end of the meeting is another way of encouraging the group to examine itself.

Teachers fear change. It adds to their insecurity. The techniques they already know may not work under the new conditions, and they are not sure they can acquire new ones that are as effective. In a changing situation the only way a staff can achieve security is through the development of a method for the control of change.

As the group grows more mature, the supervisor will want to place greater personal emphasis on coordination and less on setting the stage. Other leadership will emerge in the group that must be used if the group is to develop. Other members of the group who show skill may be brought into service as chairmen of discussion meetings. A planning committee may be organized to take the lead in initiating ideas and establishing agenda for meetings. Sub-committees may be formed under the leadership of various staff members to assume responsibility for portions of the program.

Although as a result of group procedure the entire staff will have an over-all view of the program and the way the pieces fit together, someone must be alert for places where segmen-

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tation is developing and must call the staff's attention to the hazard and suggest ways of overcoming it. Someone must collect information about the group's activities and coordinate them. That person is the official leader. Someone must watch for places where leadership is beginning to falter and must be ready to serve as a resource person in group work procedures. That person too is the official leader.

To make coordination of the program easier, the leader will avoid sole jurisdiction by any individual or group over any phase of the program. *All sub-groups, departments, and committees should be responsible to the total faculty.* All members of the staff should have a sense of responsibility for the total program if the faculty is to remain a group.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Spend time thinking of how the group can attack problems rather than on ways to influence the group to accept a pre-conceived solution?

2. Let the staff know that solutions proposed by the official leader are possible courses of action, not official rulings?

3. Use group decisions as official rulings and statements of policy?

4. Place major attention on coordinating group thinking and activities?

5. Help the staff to locate and utilize the various types of authority present among its members?

6. Share with the staff all the responsibility and authority delegated to the official leader?

7. Let the group know the boundaries of its authority and its relationships to other groups?

8. Define the functions of the group and any sub-groups?

9. Provide time for thinking together?

10. Discuss with the staff the procedure that is being used?

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11. Keep the procedure flexible and subject to change by the group?
 12. Begin group work on problems of the staff?
 13. Stress faculty discussions as the place where ideas can be advanced and tested without fear of embarrassment?
 14. Emphasize "what is right" rather than "who is right" in staff discussions?
 15. Work for consensus rather than majority on action to be taken?
 16. Avoid the use of the veto?
 17. Make clear the what, how, when, and who of implementation while group discussions are being made?
 18. Take action on some problem early in group work?
 19. Help members to study group techniques and ways of improving procedures?
 20. As the group becomes more mature, assume a coordinating, resource-person role?
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Chapter 9

How Can Staff Meetings Be Made Effective?

The development of the staff into a working group is a long-term project. It is brought about through many experiences in which the members of the staff find group work a satisfying and effective means of achieving desired results.

The official leader must have skill in organizing and conducting individual faculty meetings and conferences or workshops. This chapter presents suggestions for conducting these activities.

How Can Faculty Meetings Be Improved?

The literature of supervision praises faculty meetings as a way of improving the quality of a staff and the school program. They are described as opportunities for cooperative thinking, for staff planning, for the presentation of stimulating talks by resource people, for getting to know the total school, and for interchange of ideas—all of which result in growth for the staff member.

When teachers are asked about faculty meetings, the story is altogether different. Most teachers rate faculty meetings very low as places for securing ideas about better teaching. Most teachers feel that they do not have any part in setting up faculty meetings, that the meetings belong to an administration that is imposing on their time.

The meeting described below illustrates the frustration that many teachers and administrators feel in faculty meetings:

We were summoned to a special teachers' meeting, to be held in the cafeteria, at 4:00 p.m. The district is small in number but large in area. The two out-of-town grade-school principals came from a distance of twenty miles. There were 27 teachers, one high-school principal, three grade-school principals, and the superintendent present.

We all sat at a long narrow table facing each other, with the superintendent standing at one end. The superintendent called the meeting to order and presented to the group what he wanted done.

"I want each of you to write a detailed course of study in language arts, explaining as closely as possible the exact procedure which you use in teaching language arts: reading, spelling, English, and so on. I want this so I will have something that I can show anyone that might want to see what we actually do in the field of language arts."

The results speak for themselves. Three more meetings were scheduled. All were postponed. The superintendent was saved by the end of the school year. *Nothing* accomplished!

As a result of teacher resistance, the usual practice is for the administration to announce a policy of one faculty meeting a month, with a definite amount of time set for the meeting, or to promise teachers at the beginning of the year that faculty meetings will be held to a minimum. Teachers have come to expect nothing from faculty meetings and wait impatiently for the meeting to end.

Persons in positions of official leadership must examine faculty meetings carefully. They must ascertain why a device that gives such high promise has yielded such poor results.

Some schools have found that faculty meetings live up to all expectations. An examination of the faculty meetings in these schools gives some clues to ways they can be used effectively.

How Should the Faculty Meeting Be Planned?

The faculty meeting must be centered on something that the teachers consider important. As long as official leadership alone

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decides what the program of the faculty meetings will be, the topics chosen will be considered important by the administrators but may be considered unimportant by the teachers. In the worst cases, such faculty meetings will consist entirely of a talk by the official leader which includes the announcements he considers important. If faculty meetings are to be vital to teachers, teachers must have a major part in selecting the problems to be studied.

In the beginning, the problems selected for study by the faculty may seem insignificant and unimportant to the supervisor. Indeed, they may be trivial problems, because teachers will start working on the minor things that bother them. If, however, teachers find that faculty meetings are effective in solving these irritating features of their work, they will be ready to move into the examination of more important issues. Analysis of apparently simple problems frequently leads the group back to a more basic one.

A staff meeting should have an agenda, a definite plan. Too often the plan of operation is only a list of ideas that the supervisor has in mind. It needs to be more than that. It should be a listing of items to be considered and it should be made available to the staff prior to the time of the meeting. In this way each member of the staff has an opportunity to be prepared to discuss and make decisions on any of the agenda items.



The agenda for a faculty meeting should be developed by the total staff, with each member on an equal basis offering any problem that he feels is important. Acceptance of this principle means that the official leader does not have the right to put the items he considers important at the top of the list and, if there is time, allow discussion of other items. It means that the official leader wants his

items to receive the same treatment given to items turned in by other members of the staff. Unless the faculty has this assurance, the meetings still belong to the administration and are the official leader's responsibility.

One way to insure that the staff knows that no special preference is given the official leader is to use a faculty-meeting planning committee. Such a committee has as a major responsibility the planning of the agenda. Staff members who have items that they want included on the agenda turn them over to the chairman of the planning committee, not to the principal. In this way the staff may be more sure that the agenda established is a staff formulation.

The total faculty should be free to change the order of items on the agenda at the beginning of a meeting. Something may have happened that makes it important to consider first an item that is far down on the agenda. Or the planning committee may have exercised poor judgment, in the opinion of the faculty, in their establishment of the agenda. In either case, the faculty should know that it has the right to change the order and should be provided with an opportunity at the beginning of each meeting to make necessary revisions.

One of the dangers of revising the agenda in the meeting is that too much faculty time will be taken up in arguing. If long arguments occur for two or three meetings, it would be well to suggest that the planning committee study the situation and come in with a recommendation for a more efficient way of satisfying the wishes of the faculty.

The planning committee should be chosen by the staff. This practice will eliminate the suspicion that the official leadership is merely pretending that the meetings belong to the staff. Having members of the planning committee chosen by the staff establishes the direct line of responsibility to the total staff more clearly and gives the staff greater freedom to go to the committee with recommended changes.

Membership on the planning committee should be changed frequently. In this way, the faculty keeps a constant control

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over the planning committee and over faculty meetings. More persons become involved in planning procedures and assume responsibility for the success of the program.

The planning committee, in addition to determining the agenda, may have responsibility for the other items needed to make a faculty meeting a success, such as establishing a meeting time, selection of the meeting place and arrangement of the furniture, provision for refreshments, and securing special consultants and arranging for their use.

When Should Faculty Meetings Be Held?

Much has been written about the appropriate time for holding faculty meetings. Some writers have advocated holding them before the school day starts. At the Holtville school in Alabama and the Washington junior high school in Pasadena, California, the teachers' schedule for the day calls for being at the school half an hour before the children arrive. Faculty meetings are held daily at this time. In this way all faculty members can be kept informed of the developments that will occur during the day and have time to study school issues on a continuing basis. Other authorities urge that faculty meetings be held at the end of the day. Their argument is that a meeting held then does not tire the teacher before he begins teaching, will not be stopped in the middle of an important deliberation, and can be more relaxed. Those who believe that the end of the day is a poor time point out that teachers are tired and cannot give their full attention to the issue at hand, and that commutation distances and trains will keep people watching the clock.

Some schools have adopted the practice of holding faculty meetings on Saturdays. The arguments for Saturday meetings are that everyone is refreshed and that time limitations do not interfere with the agenda. Opposed to this point of view is the opinion that week ends should be completely free from school work and used for relaxation and recreation.

During the past few years an increasing number of schools

have devised ways to hold faculty meetings on regular school time, thus eliminating all feeling that faculty meetings are something beyond the regular job. Much confusion has arisen on this issue because of lack of clarity as to what constitutes a school day. Where administrations have not declared a policy, some teachers and teacher organizations have drawn the conclusion that the school day consists of the time classes are in session and that the teacher is carrying a full job when he meets classes from nine in the morning to three in the afternoon. Other schools have stated officially that a school day includes time from 8:30 in the morning to one hour after classes end. These schools have faced less difficulty when they have attempted to bring staff meetings into the regular school day. In some schools with this policy an attempt has been made to secure a two-hour period for faculty meetings by shortening classes so that the regularly scheduled classes end an hour early and teachers' meetings can be held from 2:00 to 4:00 in the afternoon. Other schools have dismissed classes for half a day each month to carry on faculty meetings.

Another technique is to work out the schedule so that portions of the faculty with common school problems have unscheduled periods at the same time and can meet as small groups. But this practice does not eliminate the necessity for meetings of the total staff in which faculty unity and common purpose can be achieved.

The scheduling of faculty meetings should be worked out in a framework that includes the assumption that faculty planning and policy formation are a part of the job and that gives the faculty a major portion of the decision as to the specific time for meetings.

There has also been much argument concerning the length of time for faculty meetings. Although many possible arrangements have been worked out, one thing is evident. All meetings cannot be of the short, half-hour variety. If all are short, they tend to become routine and used for administrative announcements. There must be some opportunity for long periods of un-

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interrupted thinking. One possibility is the short meeting for day-to-day decisions and longer meetings, once a month or oftener, for long-term planning and policy formation.

Should Refreshments Be Served?

An important part of the planning for a faculty meeting should be the arrangement for social activities that will help teachers get to know each other better and that will develop a feeling of unity that differences of opinion will not disrupt. Such activities build solid human relations on which the program can grow.

The social phase of the faculty meeting can be very simple. In some schools it consists of serving coffee or tea at the beginning of the meeting, a particularly helpful practice if faculty meetings are held at the end of the day. It serves as a break between the mental exertion of classes and the thinking period of the meeting. It relieves tension and gives opportunity for an exchange of information, stories, and banter.

An essential provision in any faculty is ashtrays. Special mention is made of this item because it represents a change of mores in some communities. If the faculty meeting is to be a deliberative session in which people are asked to reflect and think and arrive at decisions, they must be provided with all the facilities that tend to relieve tension. If a supervisor faces the situation realistically, he realizes that many teachers smoke, that forcing them to go for long periods of time without smoking will decrease attention to the problem at hand, and that a normal thinking situation for these teachers is one in which they can smoke as they reflect.

How Should the Meeting Be Housed?

Faculty meetings should be held in the library or in some other room that is pleasant and has a flexible furniture arrangement. Too often meetings have been held in rooms with screwed-down desks that are too small for the teachers and that

have devised ways to hold faculty meetings on regular school time, thus eliminating all feeling that faculty meetings are something beyond the regular job. Much confusion has arisen on this issue because of lack of clarity as to what constitutes a school day. Where administrations have not declared a policy, some teachers and teacher organizations have drawn the conclusion that the school day consists of the time classes are in session and that the teacher is carrying a full job when he meets classes from nine in the morning to three in the afternoon. Other schools have stated officially that a school day includes time from 8:30 in the morning to one hour after classes end. These schools have faced less difficulty when they have attempted to bring staff meetings into the regular school day. In some schools with this policy an attempt has been made to secure a two-hour period for faculty meetings by shortening classes so that the regularly scheduled classes end an hour early and teachers' meetings can be held from 2:00 to 4:00 in the afternoon. Other schools have dismissed classes for half a day each month to carry on faculty meetings.

Another technique is to work out the schedule so that portions of the faculty with common school problems have unscheduled periods at the same time and can meet as small groups. But this practice does not eliminate the necessity for meetings of the total staff in which faculty unity and common purpose can be achieved.

The scheduling of faculty meetings should be worked out in a framework that includes the assumption that faculty planning and policy formation are a part of the job and that gives the faculty a major portion of the decision as to the specific time for meetings.

There has also been much argument concerning the length of time for faculty meetings. Although many possible arrangements have been worked out, one thing is evident. All meetings cannot be of the short, half-hour variety. If all are short, they tend to become routine and used for administrative announcements. There must be some opportunity for long periods of un-

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interrupted thinking. One possibility is the short meeting for day-to-day decisions and longer meetings, once a month or oftener, for long-term planning and policy formation.

Should Refreshments Be Served?

An important part of the planning for a faculty meeting should be the arrangement for social activities that will help teachers get to know each other better and that will develop a feeling of unity that differences of opinion will not disrupt. Such activities build solid human relations on which the program can grow.

The social phase of the faculty meeting can be very simple. In some schools it consists of serving coffee or tea at the beginning of the meeting, a particularly helpful practice if faculty meetings are held at the end of the day. It serves as a break between the mental exertion of classes and the thinking period of the meeting. It relieves tension and gives opportunity for an exchange of information, stories, and banter.

An essential provision in any faculty is ashtrays. Special mention is made of this item because it represents a change of mores in some communities. If the faculty meeting is to be a deliberative session in which people are asked to reflect and think and arrive at decisions, they must be provided with all the facilities that tend to relieve tension. If a supervisor faces the situation realistically, he realizes that many teachers smoke, that forcing them to go for long periods of time without smoking will decrease attention to the problem at hand, and that a normal thinking situation for these teachers is one in which they can smoke as they reflect.

How Should the Meeting Be Housed?

Faculty meetings should be held in the library or in some other room that is pleasant and has a flexible furniture arrangement. Too often meetings have been held in rooms with screwed-down desks that are too small for the teachers and that

force them all to face in one direction. Both features tend to handicap the meeting. Thinking is more likely to occur in situations where people are comfortable and can relax. If we want participation and interchange of ideas, people must be able to see each other.

In creating the environment for the faculty meeting, the furniture should be arranged so that all members of the staff can see each other face to face. Some schools have seated the faculty in a square formation. This has one disadvantage. Studies of the flow of discussion indicate that the persons in the two end positions on the side on which the discussion leader is sitting cannot participate freely. If the square is used, people who have facility in group discussion should be encouraged to take these "blind" spots so that timid members of the staff will not be further handicapped by drifting into these difficult positions. Other staffs have used the circle arrangement for discussion. If the staff is large, a double circle proves feasible, even if it isn't as efficient as a single circle. Some faculties have used the semicircle organization, with the chairman and a secretary of the faculty seated at a table faced by the semicircle. A difficulty with this procedure is that it tends to set apart the leader by placing too great an emphasis on his status. One definite recommendation is that in arranging for the meeting no member of the staff should be isolated, either the discussion leader or any other member of the faculty. The physical arrangement of the furniture should suggest unity without setting apart any member of the group.

If possible, a blackboard should be available. Studies of discussion procedures reveal that the discussion is more logical and has less repetition if someone is keeping a record on the blackboard of the flow of the discussion. The blackboard's location is unimportant if the square or circle formation is used. It should be where everyone can see it but it should not become the focus of discussion. If a semicircle formation is used, the blackboard should be back of the discussion leader at the table facing the semicircle.

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If the small discussion group techniques are to be used to get wider participation, room arrangements must be such that the staff can divide easily to consider issues that arise. Some schools have attempted to work out this difficulty by having several rooms available, to which smaller groups of the faculty can go for discussion. One of the difficulties of this plan is that time is wasted in moving from room to room, and the spirit of the meeting may be broken when the total group separates. Other schools hold their faculty meetings in a large room such as the cafeteria, where small groups can isolate themselves and hold discussions without interfering with the conversation of other small groups.

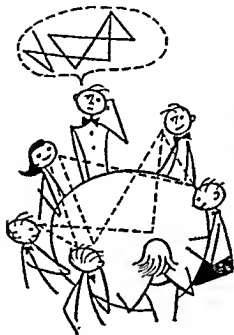
What Is the Role of the Chairman?

In some schools the official leader serves as the chairman of the faculty meeting. In others, this responsibility is rotated, or the chairman of the planning committee serves as the discussion leader. One of the advantages of the supervisor's not being the discussion leader is that he has greater opportunity to participate in the discussion. On the other hand, the success of a group meeting depends to a great degree upon the skill with which the discussion is handled. If a faculty is unaccustomed to working together democratically, it may be well for the official leader who has skill in discussion leadership to preside at meetings until other members can be trained. The discussion leader sets the mood of a meeting and his skill as a traffic policeman determines the flow of the discussion. He has many responsibilities. If the staff lacks skill in leading discussions, the official leader has an obligation to help members develop the skill.

The first function of a discussion leader is to *create an atmosphere that is easy, yet businesslike*. He must be friendly and exhibit a sincere welcome to all group members and accept their comments and participation; he must encourage all to accept as worthy of consideration the comments of every other

member; he helps new members to become acquainted; he watches to see that the timid person who has an idea has the opportunity to bring it into the discussion; he keeps a few persons from dominating the meeting.

A second function is to *guide the flow of discussion*. It is his job to see that all who have comments or questions are recognized and to refer questions to the proper source in the group for an answer. To do this properly, he must keep the total flow of the discussion in mind and must remember the types of comments that each member of the group has made. With these points in mind, he is ready to shift a question to the proper person, or he can place two comments or two questions in opposition to each other or show their relatedness. He provides the transition from one question to another.



A third function of the chairman is to *clarify questions*. Many times a question will be in such abstract form or will be so long or unwieldy

that the discussion will be hampered by it. In such cases the chairman must step in. He may ask the questioner to define certain words used or to state the question another way. Or the chairman may short-cut the process and restate the question in a brief, direct form. In any case, as he finishes clarifying the question he must get the acceptance of the questioner that the rephrasing has not changed the original meaning of the question.

A fourth function of the chairman is to *keep the group on the topic*. He must constantly watch to see whether comments

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and questions further illuminate the issue under discussion or whether they lead the group away from the point. Many times he will be forced to make judgments concerning the degree of deviation from the issue that will be allowed. In bringing the group back to the issue, the chairman must act in such a manner that even the person taking the group away is not made to feel that he is disrupting the discussion or making an unsatisfactory contribution to it. Some ways of doing this are: to restate the issue after the participant has concluded his contribution; to state the points that have been made on both sides of the issue; to point out how the last comment bears on the issue and ignore the portions of the contribution that were leading the group away; or to state that the last comment opens up other issues or ramifications of the present issue which the group may wish to explore and ask the group whether they want to stay with the original issue or pursue these new possibilities further.

Summarizing the discussion is one of the most valuable functions that the chairman can perform. Through this process he gives order to the discussion. He outlines the flow of the discussion for the group at various times during the meeting. In situations in which a blackboard is not used to keep a running outline of the meeting, this function is essential.

The number of times that the chairman summarizes depends upon the way in which the group is moving. If the discussion gets under way quickly, if the progress is rapid, and if all members of the group are keeping the issue clearly in mind, the chairman can let the summarizing go for long periods of time. If the group does not have its purpose clearly in mind and is moving slowly, the frequent summaries will help to stimulate more rapid progress. It is especially important for the chairman to summarize or to have some member of the group summarize as the meeting closes. Unless this is done, many people who are not too skilled in group discussion feel that nothing has been accomplished and that the period has been only a bull session. The morale of the group will be strengthened if the chairman points out the specific accomplishments of the meeting.

The chairman has the responsibility for *keeping order in the discussion*. He must step in when several people attempt to speak at the same time. He must raise the type of questions that will pull back into the main group a small sub-group that starts a discussion within itself. He must watch for outside distracting influences, such as street noises, people walking in and out of the meeting, and scraping of chairs. He must take appropriate action to eliminate these disturbing factors as far as possible.



The chairman must *watch all members of the discussion group he is leading*. As he glances at the faces of participants he can see whether or not they believe the meeting is moving satisfactorily, detect the glances that indicate that a person has a contribution to make, note the frowns that mean that a member of the group disagrees or questions what has been said, perceive

indications of restlessness such as doodling, crossing of legs, squirming in chairs, see which members of the group agree with other members of the group, obtain a picture of the development of consensus, and know when it is time to raise the question of whether or not the group is ready to make a decision. The signs are small but they are the cues by which a leader of a discussion group must operate. Someone has aptly called leading a discussion group "playing by ear." And close observation of the group is the only way this playing by ear can be successful.

Participation in a discussion group depends upon



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the nature of the individual. A discussion leader has a responsibility for giving individualized attention. He must particularly watch the timid members of the group; when they give the slightest indication that they have a contribution to make, he must call on them. He must keep the over-talkative person from participating too much. He can do this by watching for over-participation in the first part of the meeting and by not gazing directly at the offending participant as the meeting goes along, by referring specific questions to the less aggressive members of the group, and, with groups in which the discussion leader has worked many times, by asking the talkative members to help bring out the less articulate members.

The discussion leader must also watch for persons in the group who have leadership. Such persons can be detected by watching the attention the group gives to various speakers. When they are recognized, they can be used in helping the meeting to progress. After they have finished the statement of the point of view that they espouse, the discussion leader can ask the other members of the group whether that is the position they want to take.

Leaders in the group who disagree with each other can be used to help clarify a position. But a danger against which the discussion leader must be constantly on guard is the alignment of people in camps behind the opposing leaders, so that the discussion group becomes two groups instead of one. The discussion leader's responsibility after the issue has been made clear is to ask the type of questions that get members of the group to state the areas of agreement and then center the discussion on seeking more agreement in areas in which it has not yet been achieved.

It is extremely helpful to a discussion leader in improving his techniques to have certain types of analyses made of the meeting and of his work. A common analysis is the use of a flow chart by which the flow of the discussion from one member to another within the group is charted. Such a chart shows whether the participation was widespread or was restricted to a few. The

flow chart will also indicate the number of times the discussion leader stepped into the picture. The more skilled the leader becomes, the fewer times he will have to participate to keep the group on the issue, to summarize, and to maintain feelings of group unity. A flow chart will also tell whether or not the center of focus stayed within a certain part of the discussion group. If a flow chart of the first part of the meeting indicates that the leaders are all in one section of the group, some members of that section may be asked to shift positions before the next session starts. Or the flow chart may indicate that the seating plan of the whole group should be changed.

Another type of analysis that proves helpful to the discussion leaders is to have a recorder make a verbatim listing of the comments the chairman makes. In this way he can see whether his questions are the type that bring all members into the discussion or whether they encourage the discussion to become dialogues between the chairman and a single member of the group. For example, one of the questions that stimulates dialogue is, "Don't you think our purpose should be to win community support, Bart?" Putting the name of the individual at the end of the question excludes all the other members of the group and makes that individual feel a responsibility for replying directly to the chairman.

Some pertinent questions for the official leader to ask himself in evaluating his discussion leadership are:

Do I listen more intently to some members of the staff?

Do I recognize certain persons more quickly because their thinking is closer to mine?

Do I tend to discredit thinking that is not in agreement with my own?

Do I pass value judgments on contributions as they are made?

Do I expect the staff to give me the floor before anyone else?

Do I expect people to agree with me because of my status?

Probably the best form of in-service training for a discussion leader is to have a wire recording made of meetings that he conducts. The discussion leader can hear the mistakes that kept the group from making progress.

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In summary, the discussion leader secures group agreement on the agenda, maintains an atmosphere that encourages full participation, is impartial toward ideas, helps the group establish its own rules of procedure, keeps discussion on the problem, summarizes as necessary, brings out issues and agreements, utilizes special abilities of group members, works toward agreement, and makes or provides for final summary.

What Is the Role of the Participants?

In the beginning of group work in a faculty, it may be necessary to spend some time thinking about the various roles of members of the group. Definition of function through thinking together will relieve a sense of insecurity that some staff members will have when the type of faculty meeting is changed.

Each participant must assume that everyone in the group has something unique to contribute to the solution of the problem. Each person has a responsibility to contribute ideas and suggestions, to listen to what others say and relate it to the problem, to think for himself, and to state points clearly and briefly without wrangling over details and technicalities.

As a member of the group each person has, along with the discussion leader, a responsibility for the direction and speed of the meeting. He must not assume a passive role. He must take action to change procedures when he thinks satisfactory progress is not being made. He must request clarification when it is needed. He may summarize and state what he believes the next steps should be. He may ask that certain persons be recognized. In short, he may assume any of the functions of the discussion leader for a short time, but always with the understanding that he is attempting to assist the discussion leader to coordinate and move the group forward.

What Is the Role of the Consultant?

In some faculty meetings, a consultant may be present. His role should be understood by him and by the group. He is brought to the meeting to help the group solve its problems. He

is not there to express his concerns or to sell the faculty a bill of goods.

During the meeting, his function is to participate as a peer member of the group. He should not expect or be given preferential treatment. As will any other member of the group, he will supply special information that bears on the problem. This information may be volunteered when pertinent or it may be requested by the discussion leader. The consultant will not stand, make a speech, or otherwise disturb the group process. If he does, he may detract more from the meeting than he adds to it.

As a consultant he will receive his guidance from the discussion leader. The discussion leader is in charge of the meeting and the consultant is there to assist him in keeping the group on the topic and moving toward a solution.

On occasion, an outside resource person will speak to the faculty. Such a situation should not be considered as group activity. It should be recognized and used as a straight lecture. It will help in the total group growth of the staff, however, if these talks grow out of problems that have emerged in group sessions and are looked upon as data-collecting activities. The information obtained should be taken back into the group for evaluation, rejection, or use.

How Shall the Meeting Be Organized?

Each meeting should have a central purpose that all participants recognize. Although a portion of the meeting may be used for announcements and the exploration of new ideas, most of the time should be devoted to securing consensus on the central question.

The chances of focusing attention and reaching agreement are greater if the meeting is used to consider a proposed solution to a school problem or a proposed improvement in policy or program. As the year progresses, faculty meetings should be devoted in large part to reports of study committees that are

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ready to make definite proposals. Meetings built around the consideration of proposals become definite and important. Faculty members know that time is being spent in making decisions that will affect them.

Meetings should not close without reaching conclusions. These conclusions may be decisions to accept proposals or to refer them back to the committee for further study of a specific nature. It should be pointed out that reaching conclusions involves clear indication of the responsibility of individual members for the execution of the decisions. Meetings that end without any feeling of accomplishment soon break the spirit of a faculty and their belief in the value of time spent in faculty meetings.

What Records Should Be Kept?

During the meeting the group needs all the assistance that can be provided to help it know its progress. It proves helpful in many meetings to have a person record on the blackboard the issues being discussed, the points made, and the agreements reached. Some groups have found it helpful to use large sheets of paper which can be taped to the wall to record the progress of the meeting. Then there is no problem of running out of board space and having to erase, and the running account of the meeting preserved on these sheets serves as the basis for the minutes and as data for study by any persons interested in increasing the achievement in meetings.

Time should be taken at the end of the meeting to check with the total group to see if the record that has been kept is an accurate account of the meeting.

A permanent record should be kept of every meeting. It should include the name of the group, date, meeting place, members present, members absent, problems discussed, suggestions made, problems referred, decisions reached, responsibilities accepted or assigned, and plans for the next meeting.

The record is essential for securing continuity of planning

and avoiding waste of time through repetition. The planning committee of the faculty can use it as the basis for determining the phases of the program that need greater attention and the faculty-meeting agenda committee will find the record a source of guidance in assigning items priority at the next meeting.

The record should be circulated to all who have participated in or are affected by actions taken or being considered. It keeps everyone in touch with the work of the group and serves to give a sense of direction and achievement. It is important evidence for a group to consider as it evaluates the effectiveness of its work.

How Can the Workshop Method Be Used?

The workshop has proved so effective as an in-service training procedure at teacher-training institutions and for national and regional educational projects that local school systems have adapted it to their uses in program development.

During the 1930's the Progressive Education Association developed the "workshop" idea. Under their plan, fifty to eighty teachers from schools participating in the Eight-Year Study were brought together for a period of five to six weeks to exchange ideas, to work on the problems facing them in their schools, and to confer with resource people to obtain new ideas. A school or a camp was taken over to make it possible for the group to remain together day and night and to have opportunity to think together in informal as well as formal situations. The workshop proved to be an extremely useful technique for developing the point of view and skills of experienced teachers.

The workshop, as it has emerged from this beginning, has certain definite characteristics. It is a place where teachers go to work on their own problems or the problems of their school. The work is based on the problems of the individuals enrolled. All participants in the workshop follow individual programs. A plan of operation, organized to provide the types of experiences that will enable the members to fulfill their own purposes,

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is developed after the participants arrive. It is a flexible plan. It may be changed many times during a workshop. Preliminary planning by the staff is usually restricted to collecting equipment and devising a plan for getting under way. In some cases, the staff goes further and establishes a general pattern for the work, which includes some general sessions and provisions for work groups. The staff may suggest a preliminary daily schedule to be followed the first few days, but this plan is only temporary until members of the workshop, including the staff, can devise a more effective way of work. Unsatisfactory procedures are eliminated and new provisions are made to care for unanticipated activities.

Cooperative work is encouraged. If members of the workshop have problems in common, they are encouraged to plan together and to share the results of their work. Joint products are considered as worth while as individual products. One of the functions of the workshop is to increase the skills of participants in group work.

No group assignments are made. Each participant has an adviser to help plan his work during the workshop period. With the adviser the participant works out his schedule and the method of attack that he will follow in solving his problem.

Many types of creative activity are made possible. Recognizing that the teachers are stimulated by having opportunity



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to work in many media, provision is made in workshops for experience in dramatics, dancing, and a multitude of art media.

An all-pervading aspect of the workshop is evaluation. All the activities of the workshop and of the individual are subject to joint evaluation by the workshop members, the staff, and individual participants. Each member of the workshop is encouraged to evaluate the group's progress and his own.

An important characteristic is the stress on social interchange. In the preliminary planning, provision is made for social activities, and as soon as the group gathers, a social committee is organized that has the responsibility for planning and conducting a wide variety of social activities.

Committee work is also an essential element of a workshop. The major committee is the planning committee, which has over-all responsibility for planning, organization of the workshop, and revision of the program. Other committees, established as needed, are the social, library, evaluation, visitors and hospitality, publicity, publications, bulletin board, and decorations committees.

Basically, the purpose of a workshop is to give the participants a chance to work on their problems with the assistance of a staff of resource people. Participants and staff members work on a peer relationship.

Some local school systems use a school building as workshop headquarters. Such school buildings have facilities for eating together, for social activities, for large group sessions, and for small work groups.

The form of the workshop that evolves in a system depends on the schedule of the staff and on the availability of time. Some school systems have established a two-to five-week workshop in the summer; others have attempted to approximate a workshop program by weekly meetings held throughout the school year. Where it has been necessary to spread out the workshop over the year, the leaders have attempted to schedule it in such a way that long blocks of time are available.

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How Can a Workshop Be Started?

There are many ways of getting a workshop started in a local school system. One is to have staff members attend out-of-town workshops held under the sponsorship of a university or a national organization, or to attend workshops in other school systems. Their reports of their experience serve to stimulate the interest of other staff members. Another method is to get a small group of the staff together, not all status leaders, and discuss the workshop idea. Out of such meetings may grow the nucleus of a workshop. Another procedure is to include descriptions of workshops in other school systems in the supervisor's reports to the staff. Visits by staff members to schools that have workshops represent still another way.

Any movement into a workshop plan should be made with the understanding that it is done on an experimental basis, and that it will be evaluated by the staff, the community, and the board of education. It has proved wise in some schools to include members of the community and members of the board of education in the workshop as a way of insuring that an accurate evaluation of the workshop reaches these groups. When such persons attend the workshop, the program becomes more dynamic and the results are far-reaching.

How Should the Workshop Be Staffed?

When it has been decided that a workshop will be held, it is desirable to choose part of the staff from the leaders in the local system. Such a choice will guarantee to the teachers that the approach will be a practical one and that it will have the support of these leaders. However, no staff member should be chosen who is not enthusiastic about working in the workshop and about the workshop technique. A misguided or disgruntled staff member can do much to disrupt the workshop activity. The ideal situation is, of course, to have the total school staff in a workshop, with all the official leadership filling their customary roles.

In addition to the local staff members, outside consultants should be provided. They will increase the variety of ideas and will give teachers in the system a feeling that the workshop is an experience that is different from the ordinary teachers' meeting. Teachers will have a chance to come into contact with persons working in another locality or with an authority that they respect. Two types of outside resource people are helpful: some serve as continuing staff members throughout the workshop; others, who have a special contribution to make to the planned program, can be brought to the workshop for a day for a presentation at a general session and can work with small groups that will utilize their talents best. The selection of the outside staff members should be determined by their competency to contribute to the solution of the major problems identified during the pre-planning.

Who Should Participate in the Workshop?

The ideal plan is for the entire staff to work together in a workshop. If total staff membership is not possible, attendance should be placed on an optional basis. All staff members should be invited to attend, but admission should be only by application. The three major factors in making the final selections should be the enthusiasm of the applicant, the carefulness with which he defines the problem on which he wishes to work, and his need for the experience.

School team possibilities should be another major consideration. The possibility of implementing workshop planning is much greater when a team from a school, including an official leader, comes to the workshop, plans a proposal to take back to the faculty, and carries it through the faculty organization.

What Pre-planning Is Necessary?

In addition to arranging budget and location of space, it is necessary for the staff to meet together, to agree on a method of operation, to study the problems listed by applicants, to select materials, and to draw up a temporary schedule.

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In the organization of the workshop, most staffs have found it desirable to plan a time for the total workshop group to meet together. This phase of the program, including presentations by special authorities and a sharing of the products of the work groups—gives the group a feeling of unity. Through these large group meetings the workshop process can be clarified and encouraged.

But the real center of life of the workshop is small work groups, organized around the common interests of a number of the participants, for cooperative attack on common problems. Each small group needs one or more staff members to maintain a continuing relationship with that group in the solving of the problem it undertakes.

The third type of planning needed is for ways to provide individual counseling. Much of the benefit of the workshop situation comes from this person-to-person relationship between adviser and advisee. The adviser has the special role of helping the workshop members to tap fully the resources of the workshop. He informs the participant about staff members or other workshop members who have information and knowledge bearing upon the problem the student is undertaking to solve. The adviser should not attempt to guide more than from ten to twenty participants. Individual conferences, serving as a continuing member of a group, and guiding special projects comprise a full load.

In the planning of a workshop, provision is made for great emphasis on evaluation—evaluation of the process and the ways of working together more than an evaluation of the members of the workshop. During the entire program the evaluation is a continuous process in which all members of the group participate. The persons most able to evaluate an experience are the persons who have that experience.



It is usual in most workshops to establish an evaluation committee which has the responsibility of recommending evaluation procedures to the total group and of organizing and carrying out the evaluation procedures the workshop group accepts. Evaluation periods with the discussion under the leadership of a panel composed of members of the various work groups have proved to be an effective way of improving the workshop process. Almost all workshops have found it advisable to use, in addition, a formal check sheet to focus the attention of the workshop members on the important phases of the workshop experience and to help everyone to strengthen weak points. Workshop members grow in teaching skill through opportunities to analyze why group activities are productive or unsatisfactory.

How Does the Workshop Operate?

Throughout the workshop program, emphasis is placed on sharing leadership. Even in the large sessions, participation by as many members of the audience as possible is encouraged. In the small work groups the staff leader immediately gets the group into the planning and the carrying on of the work. As soon as he can, he moves into the background and serves as counselor and resource person rather than as chairman of the group.

An important step in obtaining involvement of participants in the operation of the workshop is the formation of a planning committee. This committee is composed of representatives of each work group, and the staff has responsibility for scheduling and revising the program to meet the needs of participants and for establishing policy and procedures. This committee seeks the recommendations of each workshop member concerning needed changes.

In forming a schedule, each work group and workshop committee submits to the planning committee the activities it wants scheduled. The planning committee coordinates the requests and formulates a schedule, which is distributed to each work-

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shop member. By this process it is possible to maintain flexibility in the program and at the same time to give each workshop member the security of a definite schedule around which he can plan his individual actions.

The schedule usually includes a variety of activities: general sessions, coffee hours, work groups, social activities, arts and crafts, and excursions. Time for informal conversation and social activities pays handsome dividends.



Means of communication between work groups must be maintained. A workshop newspaper helps, but it must be supplemented by sharing the products of work groups, use of general sessions to exchange ideas between work groups, and work groups joining together for meetings where they have common interests or can use the same resource people. The planning committee provides the machinery through which such coordination is made possible.

How Can the Workshop Results Be Implemented?

Before a workshop ends, the members will want to insure that the results of the workshop will be implemented. One way is to

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establish a method of maintaining communication by a round-robin letter, or to arrange for an exchange of resource material developed during the year, or to establish meeting times at which persons doing the same type of work can gather to exchange ideas and results. The official leader can assist in this follow-up by making sure that resource people will be available to assist workshop participants to carry on the work they have planned at the workshop.

The most important means of implementation will be the changes that take place in individuals during the workshop. A principal, whose seventh- and ninth-grade teachers had attended a workshop, writes:

The group, both seventh and ninth teachers, who were in the workshop gained such an insight into the experience curricula, that they not only check their practices against their philosophy, but they evidence conviction for and confidence in what they are attempting to do. I observe growth in self-direction, in planning ability, and in ability to work together in groups on the part of both teachers and pupils. We have, however, much yet to be achieved.

The school is planning parent meetings. The difference in attitude and in eagerness to include parents between those who attended the workshop and those who did not is very noticeable. These teachers evidenced more security in talking with the parents and asking for their participation in discussion of such subjects as evaluation, characteristics and needs of the age groups.

The enthusiasm of the workshopers has extended to other members of the faculty. The Spanish teacher is introducing an activity program in Spanish. The tenth-grade teachers have begun studying characteristics of tenth graders and are discussing adjustments to make to meet the pupil needs more effectively.

Obviously the influence of the workshop experience extends beyond the participants.

The official leader's functions in a workshop program are to stimulate the original interest in a workshop, to pull together people who will be interested in planning a workshop, to secure

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facilities and staff members with whom to carry out plans, to serve as trouble-shooter and coordinator during the workshop program, and to provide all the help and encouragement possible to those who implement ideas in their schools after the workshop is over.

A variation of the workshop that has been developed in some schools is the two- or three-day retreat or camp, which permits the faculty to get away from the school and other regular routines to think and plan together. In such meetings the group process steps consist of isolating the concerns of the group, getting agreement on agenda, exploring problems under skillful discussion leadership, and arriving at consensus on steps that need to be taken. Retreats are used more for exploration, long-term planning, and agreement on point of view than for intensive work in the solution of a simple problem.

How Can the Pre-School Planning Conference Be Used?

A supervisory procedure that is gaining widespread acceptance is the pre-school conference. Unlike its predecessor, the institute, it is a work session. It provides an opportunity for the staff of a school to give full time to work on program improvement.

The amount of time made available for pre-school conferences varies from one month to one or two days. In Florida, teachers are paid for one month in which pupils do not attend school. The time is allocated in various ways. Some counties use two weeks for post-school planning and two weeks for pre-school planning; others use one week for the post-school conference and three weeks for pre-planning. Outside Florida, a few school systems provide two weeks of pre-school planning, some one week, and many two or three days.

The time is used to: develop a feeling of belonging in the staff; evaluate the existing program; identify problems; plan

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curriculum innovations; formulate new policies; plan the in-service program; agree on routine procedures; orient new teachers; give teachers opportunity to organize instructional materials; and study the cumulative folders of incoming students.

In many situations, the pre-school conference is considered an essential part of the in-service program. Greenville, South Carolina, for example, has a two-week pre-school conference. At mid-year, a day is provided for the teachers to come back together to evaluate the effectiveness of the pre-school conference and to recommend work groups that should be organized for the coming fall. Before school closes in the spring, the work groups for the pre-school conference have been organized and some of the problems have been identified. (A sample of the evaluation form used at the end of the 1954 Greenville Pre-School Conference is presented as Appendix B.)

The pre-school conference closely parallels the workshop, but it has certain advantages: all staff members are present, it is recognized as a part of the work of all staff members, and it deals with the real problems of getting school underway.

How Can Meetings Be Improved?

Any group procedure, whether it is an individual faculty meeting or a workshop, must be studied and revised by its members. Techniques for studying group procedures are presented in the section on evaluation skills (see pages 310-313).

A basic concept underlying improvement of meetings is that evaluation is a part of planning. Planning apart from the evaluation by individuals or groups is invalid and is subject to errors that can be avoided.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Organize staff meetings around the study of teacher problems and the improvement of the school program?

How Can Staff Meetings Be Made Effective?

2. Have an agenda for each meeting?
3. Encourage all staff members to submit items through an agenda committee chosen by the staff?
4. Make the agenda available to the staff before the meeting?
5. Provide opportunity to revise agenda at the beginning of the meeting?
6. Establish a school day that includes time for faculty meetings?
7. Have the staff help in establishing a specific time for faculty meetings?
8. Provide enough time for groups to think problems through?
9. Provide opportunity for relaxation at staff meetings?
10. Hold meetings in informal surroundings with face-to-face seating arrangements?
11. Keep a record of progress where all can see it?
12. Have a flexible furniture arrangement that will permit the meeting to break into small groups?
13. As a discussion leader:
 - Establish a free, permissive, informal atmosphere?
 - Clarify the issue under discussion?
 - Keep the group on the issue?
 - Summarize from time to time?
 - Watch expression of members of group and draw out the less articulate members?
 - Use statements of position as the basis for determining group agreement or disagreement?
 - Get group to state areas of agreement and spend major portion of time seeking ways of getting more agreement in areas still in dispute.
 - Have a record of discussion flow to use in evaluating leadership techniques?
 - State the conclusions reached at the meeting and the agreements as to responsibilities accepted?

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way of coordinating the activities of the staff must be devised. The principal may attempt to do this himself, but he is always under the suspicion of manipulation if he is the only one with access to all the information about program and policy development. A common practice is to designate a small number from the staff to serve as the principal's cabinet, a faculty council, or a planning committee. The degree of administrative domination of the faculty groups varies markedly in terms of the official leader's understanding of group dynamics.

The first formal faculty participation in program coordination was through the principal's cabinet. In the beginning, these cabinets consisted of department heads, or, if the school did not have departments, faculty members selected by the principal were given responsibility for certain phases of the school program. Later, the principal's cabinet was elected by the faculty rather than appointed by the principal.

Another step has been to recognize the group as representatives of the faculty and to call it the faculty council. The faculty council is a move from faculty participation limited to advising the principal to responsible legislative participation in program development.

The work of faculty councils varies. In some schools it is the policy-forming committee for the whole faculty. In such a faculty organization the only limits on the type of policy work the faculty council may undertake are the regulations of the state department of education or the local board of education. In other schools, the faculty council sifts proposals and ideas and recommends to the total faculty acceptance of certain policies. If an attempt is being made to involve all staff members in policy formation, the latter procedure has greater validity.

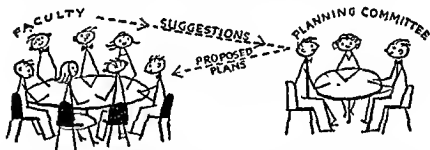
A more recent plan of coordination is the use of a coordinating committee, which may also be called a planning or steering committee. It may take many forms. In a faculty without an elaborate plan of organization, it may be the agenda committee for faculty meetings. In other schools, it may be responsible for

How Can the Work of the Group Be Coordinated?

the in-service program of the school. Or it may be an evaluation committee with responsibility for constant examination of the school program. Some schools draw this representation from departments or grade levels of the faculty. Others make an attempt to secure a representation from different age segments of the faculty.

Usually, the *coordinating committee* will include the official leader of the faculty as well as elected representatives of the total group. Administrators are faculty members also. If official leadership is omitted from the coordinating committee, the faculty develops two foci of strength, which may pull in opposite directions. No group is efficient when leadership is divided. *Since the coordinating committee is really an attempt to bring about the cooperative thinking of official leadership and the staff, it should include both in its membership.*

The coordinating committee must be a part of the faculty; it



must come from the faculty, work for the faculty, and feed its proposals back to the faculty. It must not allow itself to decide what should be done to the faculty and the school program. The faculty members must feel that the coordinating committee represents them and is responsive to their wishes. Otherwise, resentment of the committee and rejection of its program will occur. A "power over" concept of responsibility and authority can isolate a coordinating committee as completely as it can an official leader.

The coordinating committee has responsibility for studying the program and the faculty personnel and for recommending

review by the faculty of the faculty council's actions. To facilitate this process, the minutes of the faculty council are submitted in writing to the faculty a week prior to the faculty meeting. If there is no disagreement with the actions of the council, they become faculty policy. If any specific action of the council is questioned, and if a motion to reject or revise the action is presented, the question is decided by the faculty as a whole at the faculty meeting.

An important part of the plan is a committee on committees, which constantly reviews the success of the organizational structure and makes recommendations to the faculty for changes that the committee feels will make the organization more effective. No changes can be made by the committee on

committees itself. It can only recommend; the faculty approves or rejects any proposals.

This plan is a cumbersome one designed to serve a large faculty, but several important principles are involved.

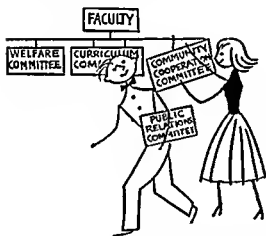
First, the structure of faculty organization is established by the faculty.

No special committee re-

sponsible only to the administration has formed the plan. The procedure leaves no feeling that any group or individual is establishing a plan by which he can control faculty thinking and action.

Second, the plan calls for a structure built around the solution of current problems. It is functional. The major committees are working in areas in which many specific problems arise and in which rethinking of existing policy is needed.

Third, the organization is flexible. It can be changed as desired. When the focus of problems shifts, one committee can be



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abolished and a new one can be formed. Machinery is included in the organization for constant study and revision.

Fourth, faculty members are given opportunity to work on the phases of the program in which they have the greatest interest. Under this procedure, it is possible for faculty members to tie in their committee work on policy with their teaching problems and special research. Their participation and policy formation are not something apart from their customary thinking and activity.

Fifth, the plan makes use of an executive group to relieve the faculty of the responsibility for debating all the policy issues that arise. At the same time, it makes possible a review of the faculty council's actions, insuring that no faculty member will be denied the right to question and promote revision of any policies that are important to him.

Sixth, all members of the faculty have representation. This representation is indirect in the faculty council, whose members were elected by the total faculty, and direct through participation in the committee the faculty member selects.

Seventh, all matters of policy are referred to the faculty. No single, small group can gain control of faculty policy. No action becomes faculty policy without total faculty approval.

The faculty of a small twelve-year school put into practice the same principles. The administrator and two teachers of the school attended a workshop. At the workshop they decided to work for more democratic practices in their faculty operation. Upon their return to the school, the superintendent appointed a committee to get the faculty program under way. This committee, consisting of the superintendent, the principal of the high school, the principal of the elementary school, and two teachers from both the elementary and high school, called the faculty together and explained their desire for more democratic determination of policy. The faculty was asked to state what they thought should be done. Three faculty meetings were devoted to the discussion of the problems of the school and of the ways the faculty might organize to solve them.

At the fourth meeting the committee appointed by the superintendent resigned, recommending to the faculty that it elect a committee that would more nearly represent the faculty and administration. A supplementary recommendation of the superintendent's committee was that the new committee, to be called a steering committee, be made up of the superintendent, the two principals, three teachers from the elementary school, three teachers from the high school, two members of the community, and a member of the board of education. This recommendation was accepted by the faculty by secret ballot and an election was held to determine the membership of the steering committee.

The steering committee conducted a survey of the faculty to determine the problems around which they felt the faculty should be organized for study. On the basis of this survey, seven choices were offered to the faculty and each faculty member selected a committee on which he desired to work.

As the year progressed, committees explored their problems until they were ready to make recommendations. Faculty meetings were then called for a consideration of the reports of each committee. These reports consisted of recommendations for changes in the program of the school. Those that were accepted became school policy. If the recommendations were rejected, the committee was asked to study the situation further and to make revised recommendations or to drop the matter.

One aspect of the plan was a shifting of personnel in the steering committee. Each member, with the exception of the three representatives of the administration, was elected for a six-month term. In this way the faculty had a close control over the membership of the steering committee.

The primary function of the steering committee was to serve as a clearing house for the work of the committees and to plan the faculty meetings. Members of the steering committee also advised the administration on ways in which the policies adopted by the faculty could be implemented.

It is important to point out that in both the plans described

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the administration is a constant factor in all committees. In the large faculty, the official leader serves as chairman of the faculty council and faculty business meetings, and members of his staff are designated as *ex-officio* members on each of the major committees. In the small school, the three members of the administration are *continuing members* of the steering committee and have the responsibility for executing the policy arrived at through faculty deliberation.

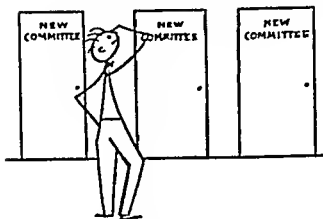
A very simple type of faculty organization is that adopted by an elementary school in Colorado:

At school this year the teachers appointed a committee of three teachers to act with the principal in determining instructional problems. One committee member was chosen to represent the kindergarten, first and second grade teachers; one to represent the third and fourth grade teachers; and one to represent fifth and sixth grade teachers. It is the job of this committee to interview other teachers and to decide problems that need to be considered for the improvement of instruction. One committee member presides at each faculty meeting.

What Are the Pitfalls to Be Avoided in a Faculty Organization?

Any faculty considering a plan of organization should be aware of certain dangers inherent in the committee system. First, committee work is time-consuming, and provision must be made for meeting time as a part of the regular schedule; otherwise the work may be considered as extra and *unimportant* by some faculty members. Second, certain faculty members may become overloaded with committee work. Faculties have a tendency to turn to certain members for leadership on any problem that arises. Unless some regulation is established that will keep any one faculty member from serving on too many committees, certain members may become so overloaded that their teaching will suffer. Third, the official leadership must learn to work through existing committees. It is easy to feel that

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none of the existing committees covers the particular problem facing the staff and to appoint a new committee to discharge the new function. Such a practice leads to many committee memberships for faculty members and to confusion about the way new committees fit into the existing committee structure. Fourth, the functions of the committees should be carefully defined. Unless they are, overlapping of committee activities occurs and the sense of order is lost.

In setting up a new organizational structure, the functions of each group or individual must be stated. Such a practice does not stifle creativeness. It frees it. When energy does not have to be spent in wondering about function, full attention can be given to performing the role creatively. In planning, lack of restrictions are desirable. In execution, a planned framework gives guideposts and security that enable the person or work group to give full attention to the job.

Fifth, a way must be formulated to insure implementation of the policies established by the faculty. If the administration is not directly responsible to the faculty for such implementation, and if the policies are not put into practice, faculty members acquire a feeling of frustration and develop the opinion that committee work is a waste of time.

If the committee-work dangers are avoided and if the faculty can see that the time spent in policy formulation really results in program change, faculty members assume real responsibility

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for the program and mature through their broader understanding of the over-all program.

Any plan that is developed will be satisfactory if the faculty keeps in mind the desirability of widespread participation, the need for a functional organization that makes possible small groups working on problems that are their concern, continuity of problem-solving and program development through standing committees with a responsibility for a portion of the program, and flexibility that permits necessary revision and necessary coordination under the authority of the total group. The productivity of a group depends upon the integration of a number of diversified abilities, interests, and needs into a unified endeavor.

What Control Must Be Exercised Over Group Members?

The efforts of any organization must be coordinated if the organization is to achieve its goals. A group cannot expect to be successful unless it plans its goals carefully and devises ways of achieving them. It must also establish effective control over the activities of its members. Anarchy has no program. *Laissez faire* does not lead to group accomplishment. Disciplinary control of group members by each other is a necessity.

A group is more than the total of the individuals who compose it. *Individuals may be self-disciplined and able to control their own behavior, but as a group they may still display anarchy.* The purposes by which individuals control their own decisions may be at such wide variance that no group control exists and coordination and progress are impossible. Self-discipline by individuals is not enough. To be successful, groups must have ways to bring individual action into line with the goals of the group.

As an official leader faces the responsibility of coordinating group activities, he is confronted with the task of securing and maintaining discipline. If the group is to exist, it must have dis-



cipline. It may be imposed by the group itself or by the leader. It may be discipline that the group establishes to carry out its purposes, or it may be discipline forced on the group by the official leader to achieve submission to his will and purposes.

Authoritarian discipline is control of the action of others by an individual with greater power. The person with power over others decides what he wants done, how he wants it done, and when he wants it done, and then forces others to carry out his purposes and plans. As he becomes sure of the willingness and ability of others to execute what he wants done, he gives them greater freedom to plan and act within the framework of his purposes. A disciplined member of the authoritarian group is one who has accepted the leaders' wishes and guides his actions by them. The leader's control is imposed. He regulates the action of others through the power of fear or respect. For a fuller treatment of this point, refer to the discussion of "power over" in Chapter 8.

Group self-discipline comes from within. As the members of the group accept common purposes, they develop a basis for coordination. As these purposes become sufficiently strong to guide the group actions, group self-discipline is achieved.

The leader does not impose the control. He helps the group

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form it. Execution of group purposes is brought about through the pressure exerted by group opinion and enthusiasm. The official leader administers the controls the group imposes on itself.

Let's examine these concepts in terms of the operation of a school faculty. Members join the faculty of their own free will on a contract basis. They have accepted the official leadership of the principal, department head, or supervisors. They have agreed to provide their services to the school for a certain number of hours per day for a definite number of days per year. The school is to be operated within the regulations laid down by the state department of education, the local board of education, and accrediting agencies, and within the budget provided by the local board. Within this framework any course of action may be taken by the official leader. He may tell teachers what to teach and how to teach, and he may present the purposes of the school and the rules by which they must abide. If he has enough power over the staff, he can enforce his decrees and have authoritarian discipline. If he does not have enough power, there will be no discipline. On the other hand, the official leader may seek to develop self-discipline within the framework of the faculty group by bringing teachers into the decisions regarding purposes, implementation, and execution.

The authoritarian approach must be ruled out on two counts. It is in conflict with democratic principles and values, and its efficiency is denied by all available research on the ways to release group potential. The supervisor must seek ways of helping a group establish self-discipline.

Some official leaders have found it hard to make the transition. They have moved from authoritarianism to anarchy. Everyone is left to make his own decisions; the group disintegrates and no progress is made in developing a school program. Such a condition is worse than authoritarian discipline.

Group self-discipline exists when a group has common purposes sufficiently strong to control the actions of individual members. A basketball team aspiring to win a tournament may

develop such strong purpose that its members will abide by training rules and will help each other abide by them. Faculty members agreeing on the desire for a salary increase may be willing to levy a tax on themselves to underwrite a publicity campaign. In each case, personal plans and actions are subordinated to the group purpose that the individual has helped to establish.

As was described earlier, a part of the process of leadership is to help the staff evolve its purposes and plans. It is also the first step toward group self-discipline. A supervisor must meet with his staff to think out together common purposes that all accept. When the group becomes committed to certain purposes, each member of the staff is able to measure his actions by a yardstick he has helped to develop. A disciplined teacher, then, is a teacher with a clear understanding of the goals of the school and a compelling drive to reach them by working with, in, and for the group.

A part of the achievement of common purposes is the development of group feeling. The members of the group must like and respect each other. They must trust each other and believe that each will assume his full share of responsibility. Otherwise, they will not be willing to undertake a common enterprise. Social activities, out of which such a knowledge of each other comes, are a preliminary step in the development of group self-discipline.

A third basis for group self-discipline is the clear definition of function and responsibility. Otherwise, there can be no wholehearted acceptance of purposes. Group members must see what the purposes involve in terms of time and energy before they are willing to accept responsibility. Without voluntary acceptance of responsibility there is no basis for group self-discipline.

Fourth, the members of the group must know that changes in group purposes and procedures can be initiated. Without this assurance, individuals are afraid to submit to group discipline. They fear that group control may be unfair. They may be allo-

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cated more than their share of work. As long as it is possible to initiate change, there is no reason to resist group authority. If any person has a case, he can convince others of the need for change.

Fifth, the group must agree on the rules necessary for attaining its purposes. If rules are related to purposes, they will be logical and acceptable and they will coordinate activities. If they are established for the group without reference to the implementation of the common purposes that comprise the basic element of unity for the group, the group has no reason to accept them. They come from outside the group and can be enforced only by outside force.

Sixth, the rules for the group must not involve unrelated activities. Teachers resent rules that affect personal living apart from the school program. Rules that emerge in group self-discipline are related to the coordination of the school program.

To make group discipline work, the supervisor himself must be disciplined by the group purposes. If a supervisor takes advantage of his position, the staff can see that he is not really accepting its purposes. If, however, he accepts the purposes sufficiently to come to work before the other members of the staff and work longer than other members of the staff, many of the petty problems that exist in some schools will disappear when the staff participates in policy formation. A high correlation exists between clock-watchers on the staff and a clock-watching supervisor.

Group purposes will not be accepted equally by all members of the staff; some will deviate and will not carry their responsibilities. Some teachers may not even live up to their contract agreement. What then?

When Is Disciplining Necessary?

A clear distinction must be made between discipline and disciplining. Where discipline exists, no disciplining is necessary. Where an individual is not controlled by the group self-

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discipline, disciplinary action must be taken. It is polite in some circles to pretend that disciplining is never necessary. Such would be the case if a supervisor were perfect in his work with groups, but no one is. The official leader, even though he is striving for group self-discipline, will find it necessary to take disciplinary action on behalf of the group. Group morale cannot be allowed to suffer because an individual refuses to be controlled by the self-imposed discipline of the group.

The supervisor is in a different position when executive action becomes necessary in a self-disciplined group. Under the authoritarian type of supervision, a breach of discipline occurs when a teacher violates one of the rules set up by a supervisor. Under group self-discipline, undisciplined action on the part of a member of the group is activity that hinders the accomplishment of the purposes set up by all. If a teacher frequently fails to meet deadlines, the discipline problem is not that he is breaking a ruling of the supervisor, but that he is hindering the accomplishment of the purposes of the staff; and the discussion between supervisor and teacher must be on that basis.

How should disciplining be done? This topic is unpleasant, but certain procedures for treating persons who have broken the discipline of the group have been developed that give better results in helping the individual return to a voluntary acceptance of his responsibilities to the group.

The supervisor should first of all try to get all the pertinent facts. It is well to begin the discussion of the problem with a question that is designed to get the teacher's side of the story. As the teacher talks, all the facts should be brought out into the open to see whether or not there is complete agreement on them. Until agreement on facts has been established, the decision as to whether disciplinary action is necessary is on an unsound basis.

After facts have been ascertained and the breach of discipline is clear, an attempt should be made to discover the reason for the unsatisfactory behavior. Was it due to disagreement with group purposes? Was it the result of conflict with individuals in

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the group? Was it caused by distractions from the job? Was it promoted by lack of recognition for contributions to the group? Was it due to resentment of some act of the official leader?

In dealing with the teacher, the supervisor must study his own behavior to eliminate anything that may be causing breakdown of discipline in the group. He must attempt to be a objective concerning his own actions as he is concerning the teacher's actions. At no time during the discussion should there be an unnecessary display of authority.

If the teacher agrees that he has violated the purposes or rules, the official leader will seek to work out a mutually satisfactory solution that may mean bringing in other members of the staff to think the problem through.

If the teacher refuses to accept the solution, it may be necessary to suspend, transfer, or fire him. These measures are a last resort; they are not to be taken to maintain the authority of the official leader but to enable the group to continue to be a self-disciplining group. Final decisions should be made in terms of the course of action that will do most to promote the purposes of the school. If there is agreement on facts but disagreement on whether an action has been undisciplined, other members of the group should be brought in to help make the final decision. The situation should never be allowed to become an issue between the teacher and the official leader.

At no time during the analysis of the situation and the attempt to reach a solution should the supervisor allow his emotions to come to the surface. He should maintain a calm, objective attitude and constantly seek facts and solutions rather than attempt to overpower through emotional pressure. Always the paramount question should be: What is best for the pupils? What is best for the group? What is best for the teacher? It must be kept in mind too that every personal contact with a member of the group must be thought of in terms of its possible group implications.

The meetings involved in working out the problem should end pleasantly. The supervisor should seek to help the teacher



regain his place in the group and his self-confidence. As an official leader, his responsibilities are twofold: to help the group maintain self-discipline and to help individuals to grow. Mistakes and lack of discipline should be looked upon as an opportunity to help the individual get new insight rather than as an occasion to punish.

These suggestions should not be interpreted to mean that the supervisor does not exert authority. He is empowered to act and he does act to keep the staff working together and making their full contribution to the success of the school program. He uses that power to implement the best thinking of all, including the one who violates group discipline. Action includes seeking solutions as well as punishing.

Let's apply this procedure to a specific situation. The principal of a senior high school told the following story.

I employed a new music teacher. Throughout the year the teacher from time to time disagreed with me and took action that he knew I did not approve. Finally, on the last day of the school year, the teacher, who was in charge of the school band, directly violated a ruling of mine. The band was to participate in a community parade which was to form in a section of town remote from the school building. The band assembled on the school grounds and I asked the music teacher to lead the band to the place where the parade was assembled via some of the back streets of town which were not heavily traveled. Instead, he took the band down the main street of the town where traffic was heavy. Although on previous occasions I had not made an issue of the direct violation of the school procedures, in this case I called the teacher to my office for an interview which ended with the decision that the teacher was not to be rehired for the coming year. My decision was not made on the basis that the

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music teacher had violated my ruling but on the basis of his having endangered the safety of the pupils involved.

In this situation the principal who described the case had not attempted to get faculty self-discipline. He made rulings that the band leader broke. He made judgments that he expected the teacher to accept. The teacher was fired because he did not accept the principal's solution. Throughout, it was an issue between the principal and the teacher, and each undoubtedly still feels that his judgment was correct. Group opinion in the faculty could rest with either man. Group thinking was not used to help the new teacher work with the faculty to implement its purposes. If the principal had followed the procedure outlined in the preceding paragraphs, the first violation of regulations would have been used as the basis for thinking together about the action and for testing the regulation. Out of such thinking together come agreement and common purposes.

The authority of an official leader can be used to promote growth or to insure obedience. When the emphasis is upon growth, group self-direction can be developed.

How Can Coordination with Other Groups Be Established and Maintained?

No group lives by itself. Its effectiveness is determined by its relationships with outside groups as well as by the working arrangements that have been created within the group. A school faculty has constant association with the student body, with the administration of the school system, and with active groups in the community. Close coordination must be established with each.

In one sense, it is impossible to separate the school faculty from the student body if effective group processes are being used in the school. All must work together, and the total population of the school—faculty and students—constitutes a group. However, since throughout this analysis attention has been focused on group relationships within the faculty, only a

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sketch of the interrelationship of students and faculty and faculty and community will be presented.

The relationship of the faculty group with students must be characterized by joint planning and work. In the classroom, each teacher should feel the responsibility for exercising the same principles of official leadership that the principal, department head, or special subject matter supervisor follows. Every committee considering program change should involve or include students. Government of the school should be a student-faculty government. It should be recognized at this point that school government as ordinarily conceived deals with only a portion of the school program, but that faculty-student planning in other areas is equally necessary.

Student participation in thinking out problems of classroom operation and the school policy and program is the only way teachers can help pupils to become self-disciplined. Further, it increases the possibility of effective relationships with other groups. As pupils understand the school purposes and program through participation in the processes through which they are formed, the student body becomes a public relations unit. Pupils explain and interpret the school to the community.

Coordination with the authorities over the official leader is one place where many groups have failed. The official leader has become so concerned with group organization and function within his staff that insufficient attention has been given to the way the small group can operate with the total staff of the school system. A supervisor may develop fine working relationships with his staff and find that their program is blocked because he has not kept his superiors informed and has not planned with them the way the program can fit into the total school system activities. It is as important for the supervisor to develop rapport and understanding with those above as with those below. It is important for him to keep them informed. He is in the unique position of having to carry responsibility for the program and to develop in staff members a feeling that they have responsibility for the program. He must ascertain the limit of his authority and the authority of the group through consul-

How Can the Work of the Group Be Coordinated?

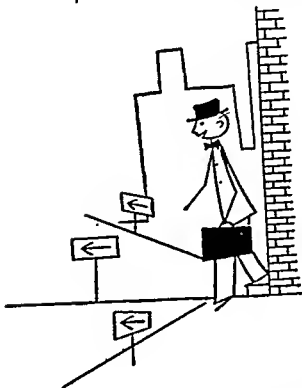
tation with his superior, and he must make clear to the group the boundaries of the planning and policy formation within which it may operate. Any staff operations that go beyond these boundaries involve the supervisor in difficulties with his superiors and do more to promote the supervisor's failure, and that of the group, than they do to bring about the success of the program.

Another responsibility of the official leader is to help the group think through decisions that are made outside the group. To do this successfully, he must get all the information and reasons back of the decision and supply them to his group. Of course, the official leader will explore with the group all decisions made by persons or groups with superior authority which impinge on the program the group wants. Then, when consensus is reached, he may recommend changes in the decision. The official leader and the group will also feel free to recommend the establishment of new policy that will enable them to do better work. But they must recognize that action taken before their recommendation has been accepted jeopardizes their program and their relationship with the higher authority. A supervisor must keep this concept in the thinking of the group he leads.

Another way the group can coordinate its work with the total staff is through participation in system-wide committee activities and study groups. Although the single-school faculty unit is the operating base, ideas and policies of the system can be influenced in directions that make the local program possible by having staff representatives feed the ideas of the local faculty into the system-wide planning. Encouraging staff members to participate in system-wide activities is a part of skillful coordination.

Another method is to involve higher officials in group thinking. If they are invited to become participants in discussions in which present policy is analyzed or new proposals are considered, they will have a better basis for understanding new purposes.

A basic type of coordination that has been neglected in many



schools is coordination with the community and the community groups. A school cannot move too far ahead of the community. If it does, its program will be criticized and as soon as the community gathers its forces, action will be taken to eliminate the phases of the school program the community does not accept or understand.

For the official leader in the school this does not mean that progress should not be sought, that change should be held back. It does mean that the leader will do all in his power to bring about coordination with community leaders and parents. Obviously, it is impossible to tell community members what to think.

The supervisor will use all his skill to bring the staff and community together in such a way that they accept and know each other, keep each other informed, and work together on community and school activities.

Any good school program will include a public relations activity that keeps parents informed of the things that are going on

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in the school. However, it must be recognized that public relations is only a way of keeping the public sold on a program that has already been accepted. The institutional advertising technique cannot be used to get the community to accept something that represents an advance over the existing situation.

Keeping the community informed includes such customary activities as columns in the local newspapers, radio programs, annual reports to parents, open meetings of the board of education, open-house days or visits to classes, fathers' clubs, and P.T.A. meetings. It also includes supplying teachers and pupils to talk at service and women's club meetings. But these are not enough. New methods should be sought.

The community of Great Neck, New York, evolved a new pattern. A group of citizens began studying education in their community; as a result, a survey of the school program was requested. After the surveying agency, which made a cooperative approach involving community members in the evaluation, finished its work and submitted its report to the board of education, the citizens' group organized thirty small groups of twenty-five each which met monthly to study and discuss the facts discovered and the recommendations made. The unanswered questions from the small groups were compiled, and a large meeting was held each month at which the consultant responsible for the coordination of the section of the survey under consideration explained the recommendations.

The initiative for the study groups came from the citizens of the community; the board of education and the school administration cooperated fully. Teachers cooperated too by serving as resource personnel in each study group. The initiative could have been taken by the school authorities. The pattern would have been equally valid, perhaps more so.

Citizens and teachers discussed together a report on the status of the schools, recommended changes, and agreed on proposals they wished to see implemented. The 500 citizens involved became a nucleus of well-informed, active workers for a school program they understood and wanted.

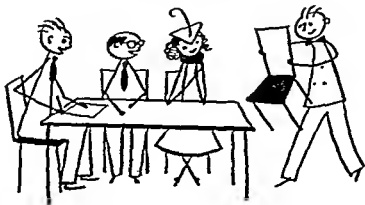
Supervision as Skill in Group Process

In Connecticut during the school year 1949-50, over 100 communities out of 169 in the state organized citizens' groups to examine their educational program and to recommend the changes they wished.

But informing the community is not enough. School personnel must become involved in community activities if the work of the faculty is to be coordinated with community groups. One of the functions of the school group and its official leader is to establish channels of communication with the community. These must not be one-way channels. If they are, the faculty group operates in a vacuum and does not know how well it is communicating or how well its ideas are being received. If the official leader wants to bring about a receptive frame of mind for the constant improvement of the school program, he must establish a situation in which there is an exchange of ideas between community leaders and the members of the staff.

In some communities a channel for that exchange of ideas exists in the community coordinating council. In such a council, representatives of business, service clubs, unions, and welfare agencies discuss the problems of the community and ways of solving them. If the school is represented on the council, the school staff has a way of sharing its thinking with other community leadership. If the school is not represented on the council, it should take steps to join.

In addition to the community coordinating council, many



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other groups in the community are working on community problems. Special committees are formed to meet various situations that arise. The school leadership should encourage the community to invite school representatives to join these groups and should encourage teachers to accept such invitations. In this way the thinking of the school staff can be shared with various segments of the community. The greater the number of faculty members that can be involved in community activities, the easier it will be to maintain a two-way flow of communication.

A false assumption that prevents many school staffs from working effectively with their communities is that the only problems that should receive their attention are school problems. A much sounder basis of operation for establishing communication with the community is that community problems are school problems, that the growing edge of the community is the most fruitful area for the thinking and learning of children. Many of the more advanced school curriculum programs are built around the solution of community problems. Studies of effective ways of learning have indicated that children learn more facts and develop more adequate skills through the problem-solving approach than through other approaches. No school leader need be concerned that putting emphasis on the solving of community problems will decrease the effectiveness of the school as a learning situation.

In some communities, the school has taken the leadership in initiating the study of community problems. Community awareness can be aroused by the results of surveys that are undertaken by classes in the school. When school children undertake improvement campaigns in the community, other agencies with similar concerns are willing to join.

In Georgia, the state supervisory program has put special emphasis on the development of skill in helping members of the community to meet and isolate the problems on which the community wants to work. It is recognized that the official leader of the school has a special place in the community that

enables him to take such leadership without giving the impression to community members that he has a vested interest to protect or favor.

In the city of Schenectady, New York, a different approach has been made. Leaders of the community decided to plan for the city they wanted in future years. As a result of their study, they recognized that certain needs existed and that certain actions should be taken to secure the type of community they wanted. The in-service program of the school was geared to this community planning, and teacher curriculum committees began to develop materials that would give secondary school pupils an understanding of community planning and the future of Schenectady.

In Dobbs Ferry, New York, the problems on which community and school were to work together were determined by a survey of the community led by an outside consulting agency. This agency did not come into the community to survey it and tell the community what was wrong. Instead, it organized committees of teachers, community members, and students who made their own survey of conditions in the community and decided what needed to be done.

As a staff group develops skill in group procedures through analysis of its own methods of working together, so do individual teachers become more valuable participants in the community. They develop the skills that enable them to exert leadership in community projects.

It is important to recognize that coordination with community groups of the nature described above is hindered when school regulations prohibit participation in political affairs. An official leader must work for political freedom for teachers so that they can be first-class citizens of the community.

A third phase of coordination with community groups is to have the community participate in planning the school program. When community members have a part in determining policy and program, they become valuable supporters. When they are kept out, they become suspicious and potentially hostile.

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The community's participation in school planning must be continuous. If members of the community are asked to think with the school staff only when a bond issue is in the offing or when the administration is on the defensive, they realize that they are being manipulated. But when they are regularly consulted before action affecting them and their children is taken, they recognize the good faith of the school staff, and cooperative responsibility results.

Specific ways the community can be brought into planning are:

1. Having individual teachers meet with the parents of the children they teach to discuss the program and the growth parents want their children to make.

2. Establishment of an advisory council on education. For example, in Westport, Connecticut, the board of education asked a group of citizens to serve as advisers to the board. Over one hundred citizens were involved by the advisory council in thinking through the recommendations that the council should make to the board.

In Denver, Colorado, an advisory committee on materials of instruction was formed. Representatives of all pressure groups in the city were invited to participate. Instructional material the school wanted to use were submitted to the committee. This action has not proved to be a restrictive factor in the selection of materials and it has given the schools the backing of community groups.

3. Formation of curriculum committees that include teachers, parents, and pupils.

4. Creation of lay advisory boards to provide consultation service for special phases of the curriculum.

5. Bringing community members into the discussion of the school budget or other special proposals before the proposals are submitted to the board.

Planning with the community does not in any way relieve the school staff of the responsibility of formulating policy for the school. In the final analysis, the school administration and

staff must take the responsibility, but joint thinking of the staff with the leadership of the community results in agreement on what steps should be taken next. The staff is then ready to develop the implementation of these ideas.

The supervisor can promote coordination of school and community efforts by participating actively in community work through taking the initiative in calling together community groups to study community problems; by giving recognition to members of the staff who are in positions of community leadership through providing time for such activities; and by bringing community members into staff meetings as resource people and as participants.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Have the plan of faculty organization originate in the faculty and approved by the faculty?
2. Suggest that faculty organization be built around the study of recurrent problems?
3. Encourage the establishment of a flexible faculty organization that can be changed as the major problems change?
4. Provide faculty members with the opportunity to work on the phases of the program in which they have the greatest interest?
5. Keep final decisions a prerogative of the total faculty?
6. Make provision for committee work during regular school day?
7. Establish regulations that spread committee responsibilities?
8. Work through existing committees instead of establishing a new one to solve each new problem?
9. Define the functions of each committee?
10. Implement the policies established by the faculty?
11. Keep open the channels for revision of policy?

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12. Seek group agreement on regulations?
13. As official leader of the group, abide by group regulations?
14. In disciplining:
 - Get all the pertinent facts?
 - Have the teacher who has broken group discipline tell his story?
 - Seek reason for breach of discipline and take remedial action if official leader or group is at fault?
 - Seek to work out a solution agreeable to the teacher who has violated group discipline?
 - Keep emotions under control?
 - Maintain a calm, objective attitude?
15. After disciplinary action, help the teacher regain his place in the staff?
16. Encourage pupil-teacher planning in the classrooms?
17. Bring students into the work of faculty committees?
18. Encourage the formation of joint student-faculty committees?
19. Keep the next person above in line of authority fully informed of action being considered by the group?
20. Discuss with the group administrative regulations that have been enacted by higher authority?
21. Encourage the staff to participate in system-wide work committees and study groups?
22. Keep the community informed of school activities?
23. Accept invitations to become a part of existing community coordinating councils?
24. Encourage staff members to become members of local action groups?
25. Encourage classes to study community problems and start action to solve them?
26. Work with groups that are studying ways of improving living in the community?
27. Work to secure freedom for teachers to participate in political activities in the community?

28. Encourage teachers to meet and plan the curriculum for their students with the students' parents?

29. Establish community and alumni advisory groups?

30. Involve the community in continuous planning for improvement in the school program?

For Further Exploration

The concern for finding better group work procedures is evident in the volume of research and writing in the field. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development offered suggestions in the 'forties in *Group Planning in Education* (1945) and *Group Processes in Supervision* (1948). In his little book, *Practical Applications of Democracy* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945), George De Huszar attempts to state democratic ideals in specific procedures for operating groups. George Homans, in *The Human Group* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1950), identifies some of the forces that affect group operation, and Cartwright and Zander in *Group Dynamics* (New York: Row-Peterson, 1953) summarize research in group development. Bert Strauss and Frances Strauss, in *New Ways to Better Meetings* (New York: The Viking Press, 1952), make suggestions that the supervisor will want to examine. Earl Kelley analyzes workshop methods in *The Workshop Way of Working* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951). To improve communication, Irving S. Lee identifies barriers and describes ways of reducing them in *How To Talk With People* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952).

Supervision as Skill in Personnel Administration



Personnel administration is the development and maximum utilization of the potentialities of individuals on the staff. It involves selection, induction, placement, training and assignment of manpower as necessary. It requires continuous study of work conditions as a basis for taking action to supply necessary employee services and the readjustment of factors in the environment that hinder the fullest contribution of individuals to the task at hand.

Chapter II

How Can the Staff Be Improved?

The official leader must work constantly to improve the quality of the staff. When replacements are necessary, the occasion should be considered as an opportunity to secure skills and abilities the group lacks. When new persons are brought into the group, their induction should help them feel a sense of belonging and should develop a readiness to make their full contribution. At all times the official leader must try to provide the type of experiences that make for teacher growth and must try to place teachers in situations where they are happy and where their abilities are used.

How Should New Personnel Be Selected?

The addition of a staff member is an opportunity to strengthen the group. It is a chance to survey the skills and abilities of the group and to secure reinforcement of weak areas. It may be used to secure types of leadership that are lacking and needed. It is an occasion for the staff to evaluate itself and ask for the assistance it wants.

Viewed in this manner, selection of new personnel is a group activity and should be conducted at the local unit level. In large cities, single schools should select new personnel from candidates who have successfully passed the screening tests of the central personnel office. This process is time-consuming, but working groups cannot be built by the haphazard choice of new members on a lottery basis by someone unfamiliar with the purposes and needs of the local school staff.

Let's be candid about the way many teachers are selected. In some small systems, when a position is open teachers apply and are selected, in many cases, according to the whims of members of the board of education or of the superintendent of schools. In many larger systems, the candidate must pass a paper and pencil test at a certain percentile level and must meet the personality requirements of a personnel interviewer. Of course, in both systems candidates must meet the basic requirement of certification for the state, unless an emergency exists. If an elementary-school position is open, they need an elementary certificate. If a secondary-school teacher is required, the candidates need a certificate that states they have a major or minor in the subjects they are to teach. That is all. In many cases even the letter of the law is not observed in the assigning of teachers. Many teachers with one type of major or minor certification are hired for high schools and are assigned to teach another subject. Thousands upon thousands of American teachers are teaching in fields in which they have not met the bare minimum established by state departments of education. Even the roughest kind of matching of qualifications and job requirements is overlooked. Such procedures do not hold the greatest promise for building effective work groups. Persons selected by such methods may not possess the competencies or ways of working with people needed in a particular situation. Examining groups must think in terms of filling a specific position in a certain school as they make their choices. Persons from the school know best what type of person they need if they have analyzed the position.

The selection and employment of a new staff member are not the job of the supervisor alone. Since teaching is an occupation in which staff members must work in close cooperation with other teachers, it is important that all members of the staff have a part in determining what additions should be made to the group.

One of the best ways of getting faculty participation in the selection of new teachers is to have the faculty set up basic

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standards that they feel the new staff member should meet. These standards should be standing recommendations upon which the supervisor can act in an emergency. If, for example, a member of the staff resigns during August and most of the faculty is away on vacation, the supervisor has the basic standards to guide him in making a quick choice among candidates.

One of the criteria that most faculties will establish is that the new teacher must believe in a cooperative approach to problems and must have a willingness to consider all viewpoints in arriving at final solutions. If a new staff member does not have this point of view, he will be an unhappy and an unsatisfactory member of a staff that works cooperatively.

If the supervisor can anticipate vacancies, it is desirable to have the staff members set up in detail a description of the type of staff member needed. For example, if a vacancy is to occur in the social studies department, the staff should meet together to consider their respective knowledges and abilities and to decide upon the strengths that are needed to supplement their present abilities. If the department has a number of people with a strong background in economics, others specialized in history and government, but few members with major training in sociology, the staff may want to select a member with a major emphasis in this phase of social studies.

The members of the present staff should be asked for recommendations of people they feel are best qualified for the opening. Some persons question this procedure. They say that it develops cliques, increases the chances of favoritism and inbreeding, and is likely to produce narrow provincialism because the staff will recommend people who think and act as they do. But if a staff has set up standards to guide themselves and the official leader, objectivity will be introduced into the situation and there is little chance that the decision will be made on the basis of favoritism alone. Perhaps too little confidence has been placed in the professional attitude of teachers and too much in the infallibility of administrators and supervisors. On the basis of the numbers alone, an atmosphere that produces favoritism is less likely in a situation in which many faculty members participate in the selection.

After the standards of selection and, where possible, specific job qualifications have been established, the process of selection is ready to begin. The supervisor has the recommendations of present staff members. He should also secure recommendations from teacher-training institutions and other sources of personnel. Too frequently, choices of new staff members are made from a small list of candidates.

When a sufficient number of recommendations has been received and credentials have been secured, the total group involved should participate in the initial screening. This screening can be done at a meeting of the group or it can be done by having members of the staff look at the credentials individually and make a rank-order list of their choices. It has been the experience of the writer that the group examination of credentials results in better selection, because staff members have an opportunity to check their thinking against the thinking of others. Furthermore, it results in staff growth, because this process again calls attention to the selection of people in terms of standards and the needs of the group rather than in terms of personal preferences.

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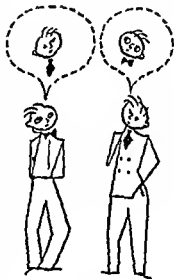
How Shall the Employment Interview Be Conducted?

After the candidates have been reduced to a feasible number, arrangements for the interviews should be made. Where possible, the supervisor should be aided by other staff members in conducting the interviews. If the staff is small, all members should have a part. If it is large, the supervisor will want to have representatives of the group work with him in the selection.

An interview is a two-way process. The candidate is making decisions about the official leader, the staff, and the school, and they are reaching a conclusion about him.

The candidate should be put at ease. If there is a real possibility that the candidate may be asked to consider the position — and there is, or he would not have survived the first screening — the atmosphere of the interview is the best sample he has of the human relations of the group. Moreover, if the candidate is kept under tension, he will not show his full ability.

A part of the interview should be in the school. The candidate will want to see the situations in which he will teach, the arrangements that are made for teacher comfort and convenience, the facilities at his disposal, the community and living conditions, the provision made for personnel services in the school, and the working relationship among the staff. The candidate must be sure that the school offers a situation in which he would like to work before the staff starts to make a decision as to whether or not he will fit into the situation. This process, though time-consuming, is not wasted effort. After all, the can-



didate being interviewed has already gone through the first rough screening successfully. If all these factors are not satisfactory to the candidate, his being chosen to fill the position may result in such dissatisfaction for him that it will hinder the harmonious relationship of the total staff.

The staff will be concerned with certain reactions of the candidate. They will want to know the way he likes to work and the way he likes to teach. They will want to know the breadth of his interests, and his creativeness in working out solutions to problems. One technique that some staffs have found effective in securing this type of evaluation is to talk over the problems of the school with the candidate and get his ideas on the way he feels answers should be reached and the solutions he thinks would be satisfactory.

If possible, a social situation should be brought into the interview. It may consist of a relaxation period for a cup of coffee in the school cafeteria or restaurant, or a meal for the group involved in the interview. In either case, the staff will have an opportunity to see how the candidate will fit into the social pattern of the group.

The interview should end with some type of definite understanding. The candidate may be told about the procedure the school is following in selecting the new staff members. If four or five candidates are being given a final interview, this fact should be made known to the candidate and he should be told the approximate date on which the final selection will be made. If a final decision can be made at the time of the interview, an agreement should be reached before the interview is over. The candidate should not be put in the position of leaving the interview without knowing exactly where he stands.

One of our large teacher training institutions once interviewed a candidate for a position. He met the various members of the staff, talked with them, looked over the teaching conditions, and then everyone said it was nice to meet him. That was all. He left and did not hear anything from any member of the staff of the institution for over a month. It is easy to under-

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stand his feeling of chagrin and lack of satisfaction with the way he was treated.

If a candidate is not selected, he should be notified of the final choice and the reasons for the final selection. He should look back upon the interview as a pleasant and a stimulating experience. Conducting the interview in a manner that gives the unsuccessful candidate this reaction is merely good public relations. Failure to leave the unsuccessful candidates with this feeling of fair and pleasant treatment is a sure way of building ill-will. Giving an unsuccessful candidate pleasure in his interview experience not only leaves him feeling it was a worth-while experience but builds the confidence of the staff in the supervisor's understanding and practice of good human relations.

Where possible, a part of the interview should be observation of the teacher in action with his own classes and in his own faculty. Seeing the way a person works in his own group is a more valid index to his behavior than any interview can be.



Every essential detail of the position must be presented. Never oversell a job! If difficulties are ahead, present them. If the candidate has the strength to meet them, he will not be frightened by the prospect. If he is unable to work well under the conditions that exist, it will be better for all concerned to find that out before he is hired. Honesty about the job on the part of the official leader is really a selling point for the position. Too frequently a person considering a new position is

shown only the desirable side of the work. One technique that proves helpful in eliminating this approach is to make it possible for the candidate to talk alone with members of the non-supervisory staff and to make it clear to him that he should ask

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any questions he wishes about the workings of the school and the type of supervision.

In employing a teacher, no promises should be made that cannot be fulfilled. Failure to live up to promises will destroy the morale and effectiveness of the new teacher and his dissatisfaction will spread to other members of the staff. If necessary, it is better to take a weaker person for the position than to secure a person who will be unable to take the position on its true merits.

When a candidate has been chosen, great care should be exercised to see that the final agreement reached is one on which there is complete understanding. No point should be left hazy that may result later in dissatisfaction or misunderstanding. Wherever possible, the final agreement should be put in writing by the supervisor and a copy should be sent to the candidate. It is desirable to have the candidate confirm the agreement in writing also.



What Is the Official Leader's Responsibility to the New Teacher?

One of the first responsibilities of a supervisor to a new employee is to make him feel that he is wanted. Too often new teachers get the feeling that no one cares whether they are on the job or not. Making a new teacher welcome involves such specific things as talking with him before the school year starts, greeting him the first morning, escorting him to the first faculty meeting, and introducing him to the members of the staff. The supervisor should take personal responsibility for introducing the new teacher to all the members of the teaching group. It increases the confidence of the new staff members to have a supervisor take the time to make him acquainted with others and assures him that the supervisor has his welfare at heart.

How Can the Staff Be Improved?

The introductions give the supervisor an opportunity to explain to the new teacher the type of help he will be able to obtain from each staff member.

The first gestures of friendship must be followed up by a longer conference in which the new teacher really gets an impression of the sincere, warm welcome of the supervisor. Much of the difficulty of the first few days or weeks can be made insignificant by this type of greeting. Above all, a new employee needs to feel that he is wanted on the staff he is entering.



Secondly, a new employee must have complete knowledge of the conditions of employment. During his employment interview he will have raised certain questions about the school and the benefits of working in it, but many items, though they do not play an important part in his deciding whether or not to accept the position, are important for his successful operation as a teacher. He will need to know the length of the school day, when he is expected to arrive, how long he should remain after school, where the teachers eat, what special services are available in the system, and how to go about securing the benefits of employee group insurance, health and accident insurance, hospitalization, sick leave, credit unions, tenure, and pension rights.

One of the most important bits of information a new employee needs is when to expect his pay check and how he will receive it. In one position the writer held, he was not told when or how he would be paid. The first month went by and no check was received. Three or four days after the end of the month his

financial condition was becoming critical, so he began to make inquiries. But no one seemed to be able to answer him. Finally he was referred to the bursar of the institution and found that his check was being held up until he signed certain papers and produced a birth certificate, which was needed to secure participation in the retirement fund. When he asked why he had not been told about these requirements before, the bursar's secretary replied, "Oh, we knew you would come around when you became sufficiently interested in getting your check." Such an introduction to the operation of the institution left an impression that lasted for many months. All this unpleasantness could have been avoided by informing the new employee of the steps necessary to secure his salary checks. Many institutions that provide employee benefits destroy the good will of employees by handling them in such a way that they become disgusted with the administration rather than pleased to be part of an organization that takes such an interest in them.

One of the most complicated types of information a new teacher needs is instruction in record-keeping. Systems vary from school to school, and many difficulties and worries can be avoided if the record system and the teacher's responsibility are explained in the beginning.

A third step in the introduction of the new teacher is to give him a feeling of confidence in himself. The first few days on any new job are trying days that test the self-confidence of the teacher. Even though the teacher has been successful in a previous job, he always has a question in his mind about being able to achieve the same success in the new job. New people, new types of students, and new working conditions require new patterns of relationships and operations. The supervisor can help the new teacher by reaffirming the confidence felt in the employee when he was hired. This can be done by casually mentioning some of the previous successes the new teacher has had and by showing a genuine pleasure in having such skill added to the new staff.

Insecurity for the beginning teacher can be created by

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remarks which belittle the theory of teaching that has been acquired in a teacher-training institution. At the first faculty meeting in the fall, a high-school principal in a southern state told his new teachers, "Put out of your minds all the theories that you learned in college." (All this with a knowing chuckle.) "They just don't work in practice."

Certainly, the supervisor should avoid adding to the difficulty of getting started by pointing out mistakes the teacher is making. Giving support and information is more important than pointing out mistakes to the newcomer.

A teacher who had been absent from the teaching field for some time was finding it difficult to get started again. Knowing this teacher to be a person who loved and understood children, the principal refrained from making any suggestions. Later, this teacher commented to a group of fellow teachers, "One day when I first came back here, the principal came in to my room and saw me making a mistake of which I was not aware. She said nothing about it, although I am sure she observed it. A little later I became aware of it myself and corrected it. I could not help thinking that it takes a pretty big person to let you find your own mistakes without telling you about it."

One of the best ways of giving a new teacher this self-confidence is to carefully define his duties. By detailing the nature and amount of the work to be done, he is given confidence that his efforts will be successful. Much insecurity comes from not knowing exactly what is expected and when it is expected. When tasks are indefinite, the feelings of insecurity mount because the new teacher has no job requirements by which he can evaluate the extent to which he is measuring up to what is expected of him.

A fourth responsibility of the supervisor to a new employee is to give him a feeling of pride in the new institution. To do this involves giving an understanding of the background of the school, its past achievements, the goals for which it is striving, and the way in which it works. If the school organization does not make a person proud to be a part of it, the supervisor has

not done the job that he should. He should indicate to the new employee the ways the staff is attempting to improve it.

Pride can also be built by telling the new teacher something of the background and accomplishments of the various members of the staff. People like to feel that they are a part of a team that has other members as able as themselves. Teachers are no exception. The spirit and traditions of the school are part of a heritage into which a new teacher steps, and the supervisor can use them to build a sense of the power and function of the institution that will give the new employee pride in the fact that he has become associated with the school.

The background provided by the supervisor will not supply enough information. He will not be able to make himself sufficiently accessible to answer all the detailed questions the employee has. To supply this deficiency the supervisor should ask one of the older members of the staff to assume responsibility for the guidance of the new teacher.

Many schools have "buddy" systems. As new teachers enter the staff, one of the older members volunteers to sponsor him and to help him learn the purposes, philosophy, and method of operation of the school.

Minneapolis, Minnesota, elementary schools have a plan by which a teacher of approximately the same age as the new staff member assists with the induction. Three or four new teachers will be invited to lunch or dinner by a teacher who has been in the school for two or three years and who still remembers the problems faced by newcomers. The assumption underlying this practice is that new teachers will find it easier to ask someone near their own age the answers to questions that trouble them. Also, the procedure increases the opportunity for the new teacher to make friends on the staff.

The community also can contribute to making the new teacher feel at home. In Great Neck, New York, the Great Neck Education Association felt that new teachers were not being made to feel a real part of the community. To improve the situation, all new additions to the staff were invited to dinner

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by families belonging to the Association. The plan insured that during the first month in the community each new teacher was a visitor in at least one home. The following year, the Association cooperated with the school administration in providing a tour of the community for new teachers the first week they were on the job. This was an attempt to help the incoming teacher to learn of the resources of the community and to become oriented to its business, social, political, and religious life.

Portland, Oregon, has followed a similar practice of taking new teachers on excursions through the community as well as inviting them to parties and evenings at the various cultural institutions in the community.

The official leader must be as concerned about helping the new teacher make a successful adjustment to the community as to the school. Lack of success in learning to live in the community will prevent the teacher from making a maximum contribution in the classroom. Helpful information includes tips on grocers, trades people, cleaners, and so forth. Some school systems have worked out agreements with retail stores by which teachers obtain discounts. Giving the list of cooperating merchants to new teachers early is extremely important if the teacher is going to furnish a home or an apartment.

Many schools have asked community groups to assist by compiling a list of living quarters. The shift has been away from an approved list prepared by boards of education or the school administration to a non-official list that the teacher can reject or accept. Some systems — Portland, for example — provide chauffeur service to teachers in looking at possible housing. Teachers and parents have been brought closer together through this cooperation. The supervisor who encourages such practices is giving parents a greater feeling of participation in the school program and new teachers a sense that the community appreciates them. Getting started on the job means getting a sense of belonging in the community as well as learning the procedures of the school.

A number of schools have pre-school planning conferences

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for new teachers. Some last only an hour or two, while others continue throughout the week prior to the opening of school. As much help as the supervisor feels necessary is provided to get the new teacher settled and ready for a successful start.

Systems with pre-school planning conferences for all the staff members have a real advantage in helping new staff members get acquainted with their colleagues and the program. The new employee feels he is a part of the working team before he meets his classes. Summer workshops serve the same purpose.

But the supervisor cannot leave the induction to the buddy system or to tips from other teachers. He must determine from time to time whether the new teacher is adjusting satisfactorily. If things are not working out, the supervisor should sit down with the teacher and find solutions to his problems. If the teacher is successful, the visits of the supervisor are indications to the teacher of interest in his success.

A program that fulfills all these responsibilities is conducted in Oklahoma:

The city-wide program for the induction of teachers to the Tulsa Public Schools provides for over-all help such as: securing housing, tours of the city, trips through the administration building, breakfast and luncheon by organizations such as A.C.E. and the Chamber of Commerce to meet other school and business personnel, meetings with the personnel office about insurance programs, sick leave, and the teachers' credit union.

In addition, individual schools in the system conducted orientation programs for their new teachers.

For the school year of 1951-52 there were nine teachers new to Daniel Webster. Of this nine, there were two with no teaching experience, three with only one year's experience, and the other four with two or more years' experience.

During the pre-school week, the entire faculty met as usual, to discuss implementation of the school philosophy. In these discussions each new teacher was assigned the customary

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"buddy teacher." In addition, a helping teacher, freed from other school duties, was assigned to the entire group of new teachers. It was the responsibility of this helping teacher to assist in any way and place that help was needed. A regularly scheduled meeting was set for each Friday morning before school. In these meetings, discussions centered around such topics as:

1. School policies.
2. School forms and records.
3. Interpreting the cumulative records.
4. Studying the reading scores of the incoming ninth graders.
5. School philosophy.
6. Teaching techniques.
7. Case studies.
8. Pupil-teacher planning.
9. Reporting to parents.
10. Teaching so as to provide for individual differences.
11. Evaluation.

In the discussion mentioned above, many supervisors and assistant superintendents from the city administration were used as resource people.

In addition to the regularly scheduled group meetings, the helping teacher attempted to do some of the following:

1. Be available at all times to answer questions, listen to problems, encourage, etc.
2. Substitute in classes or find substitutes in order that new teachers could observe in other classroom in other buildings in the city.
3. Do demonstration teaching in her teaching field.
4. Change schedules of problem pupils to more experienced teachers.
5. Help give objective tests.
6. Make suggestions for handling problem pupils.
7. Make suggestions for procedures after observing in classrooms.
8. Help teachers decide why they had problem children in class.

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9. Suggest professional literature for general and specific problems.

This project for new teachers at Webster High School is still in the experimental stage and should improve with further modifications.

An explanation to new teachers of the way the program has developed enables them to understand the things that have already been attempted, the types of difficulties that have been encountered, and the compromises that have been made. They need to see how much progress has been made and the rate of speed involved. Such a background gives them an understanding of the types of skills that will be expected from them in working for change.

The orientation of the new teacher should also help him to get an understanding of the obstacles to progress in the school and community. Unless these obstacles are made clear, the new teacher may not have sufficient sympathy for the slow progress the staff has made and will not be able to help in planning strategy for reducing or getting around the obstacles.

New teachers should be involved in faculty action to overcome obstacles as soon as they become members of the staff. If they are exerting their energy in removing road-blocks, they will be less prone to become critical of lack of progress. Through meeting some of the hard knocks that come to those on the action front, they will gain a feeling of belonging and a greater appreciation of the contribution that present staff members are making.

If possible, they should be working on committees composed of both older and younger teachers. The experience of the older teachers will help them avoid mistakes that their new ideas and enthusiasm will lead them to make.

How Can Teacher Growth Be Continued?

Attempts to improve the staff cannot be confined entirely to the addition of new staff members. In fact, the major possibility of increased strength is through in-service training for the present members of the group.

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Teacher growth is promoted through the kind of faculty organization that encourages teachers to exert leadership by stating their problems, by devising ways of seeking solutions, by participating in decision-making, and by accepting responsibility for the outcome.

In order to develop such a structure, there are certain steps that we, as supervisors, must take. We must help develop: a permissive climate in which creativity is valued and diversity of opinion is recognized as an asset; the type of situation in which each individual feels worth while because he has a contribution to make and a belief in his ability to make it; the type of communication where people hear each other and become increasingly sensitive to the feelings of others; a common understanding that leadership is a function of the group and consists of a contribution that an individual makes to help a group determine and carry out goals; techniques by which the group can identify problems and locate necessary information and resource people to solve them; evaluation procedures through which the group constantly improves the processes that it uses and the goals it has established.

As a supervisor attempts to promote in-service growth, his pattern of work corresponds to the principles that underlie all good learning situations. He recognizes that: (1) learning is occurring all the time; (2) the learning that an individual does in a situation is determined by his purposes, his needs, and his past experiences; (3) when force is applied, the learning that occurs may be the opposite of what is desired; (4) the learning of the teacher will be nearer what the supervisor expects when both the teacher and the supervisor feel secure and when both have had a part in establishing purposes; (5) the supervisor and the teacher learn simultaneously. Teacher growth is promoted when teachers exchange ideas and when they are encouraged to test the hypotheses they establish.

Programs of curriculum improvement constitute in-service training. Too frequently it has been assumed that these are separate functions. As teachers work on identifying inade-

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improving the school program. It is purposeful learning. Areas that have proved fruitful in many situations are:

Examination of the recent developments in theories of learning and child growth and adapting the program to meet them.

Preparation of more adequate materials of instruction.

Reorganization of courses, marking schemes, promotion policies, and reporting systems.

Study of individual children and planning of experiences for them.

In-service training should not be confined to experiences that provoke only academic growth. Many times a faculty will be further advanced in its academic learning than in other abilities that make the success of the school program possible. Growth in ability to work with others, improved skill in democratic processes, the development of social skill, and the rounding out of the individual as a social being may all be areas in which teachers need more help than they do with methods of teaching or with content.

A faculty may be involved with emotional problems that create such a strain among members of the group that no co-operation can occur. In such a situation an in-service training program must provide as its first step experiences that will enable people to relieve themselves of the emotional tensions that hinder constructive work. For this purpose, in-service training may include recreation, dramatics, and arts and crafts as well as more formalized training.

In-service training may take many forms. It is not always getting together for common experiences. Reading, attending conferences, or other types of individual experiences can be in-service growth experiences. Some supervisors find the best contribution they can make to teacher growth is to take the place of a teacher while he attends conferences or visits some other school. Other supervisors have found their most helpful contribution consists of making professional material that contains suggestions and ideas easily accessible to teachers. A strong

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professional library is a basic element of a good in-service training program.

In-service activities may take the form of study committees, participation in the evaluation of a school program, forums in which teachers, parents, and pupils exchange ideas, workshops, or study of learning problems based on direct classroom experience and on inter-school studies of curriculum development and program. These may be as productive of teacher growth as a college or university course.

One of the most important kinds of in-service training is participation in an experimental program. An examination of the history of staffs in schools that have participated in experimental programs leads to the conclusion that such participation produces people who are stronger and more capable. People grow as they have a chance to try something new, and as they come to look upon their jobs as a chance to explore better ways of teaching. The staffs of the schools involved in the Eight-Year Study and the Southern Study have contributed many of the present-day leaders in education. Such developments indicate the far-reaching effects of participation in experimental projects. To put it briefly, people grow as they try new things. To the extent that supervisors can make a teacher's day-by-day experiences an experimental attack on a problem, real in-service training is being provided.

If teachers want to observe other teachers at work and are willing to be observed, intervisitation and analysis of teacher-learning situations constitute a type of experience that promotes teacher growth. Frequently, supervisors find themselves faced by seeming insurmountable problems in stimulating and conducting programs of intervisitation. Teachers don't want to observe. Teachers can't find time to observe. Teachers are unwilling to be observed. The classrooms observed are poor teaching-learning situations.

In the following paragraphs, Sallie Kate Mims describes how a South Carolina county system, divided into four administrative areas, attempted to solve these problems as it conducted

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an observation program in which every elementary teacher participated:

As soon as the day of observation had been placed on the school calendar, the supervisors, working with other school staff personnel, began to study possible plans of conducting an organized observation program. Following their discussions they adopted some general procedures for operating.

The following agreements were reached:

1. Observations were to be arranged for small groups of teachers rather than for individuals.

2. If possible, teachers were to visit within their own administrative areas in order to encourage in each individual respect for power within his own group. In other words, teachers were to be encouraged to feel that each had a worthwhile contribution to make in the development of the school program, and therefore, that it would not be necessary to go outside the area to find good teaching situations.

3. As far as possible, the interests and special skill needs of teachers were to be considered in arranging for a day.

4. Since the major purpose in conducting the program was to provide situations and experiences in which teachers might continue to grow professionally and might find better ways of meeting needs of individual children, as preparation for a day of observation, the supervisor would plan with and assist, wherever possible, the teacher who was to be observed.

5. Schedules were to be arranged to meet the needs of observers and the teacher who was to be observed.

6. A conference for readiness was to be held on the day of observation just prior to the classroom visitation.

7. A conference for evaluation and sharing of ideas was to be held in the afternoon of the day of observation.

. . .

The supervisor worked closely with the teacher who was to be observed. Help in planning the day's schedule was given; the teacher's general and specific plans of procedure for the various teaching situations were discussed; and any other help which the teacher requested or which the supervisor could suggest was provided.

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Occasionally in setting up plans for a day of observation a teacher said to her supervisor, "If you will help me I should like to attempt some work in an area where I am not good at all. With this day as an incentive, perhaps I can improve the quality of my own teaching." As a result, the teacher and the supervisor planned together some experiences with the topic requested. After a number of days with the two working in this manner, the teacher provided a period on the schedule for observers which was most valuable and satisfying to the visitors and also to the teacher herself.

. . .

The teacher who is to be observed desires help from the supervisor before she teaches. She does not want to feel that she has failed to carry forward the program on which agreement has been made. Teachers, like children, have needs that should be met. Each teacher who is engaged in one of these observation-teaching experiences has the need for a feeling of security—of warm acceptance by the supervisor; she has the need for a feeling of successful achievement and more self-respect; she has the need for a feeling of recognition for a valuable contribution from her fellow teachers who are her guests for the day; and she has the need for a feeling of belonging in the group.

. . .

While teacher and supervisor always planned very carefully each period for a day of observation, in no instance was the work rehearsed with children. The observation day was as natural as the teacher could make it. The teachers were concerned about doing as good a teaching job as possible and therefore some may not have been as relaxed as they would if the visitors had not been present but every effort was made to provide for the boys and girls another day of work together.

. . .

Between the middle of October and the last of March every elementary teacher in the county experienced a day of observation. One hundred and thirteen teachers taught for groups and eight schools were visited in the tour pattern with members of the group observing in classrooms from first through seventh grades.

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A department in a large city high school made a less elaborate approach to intervisitation:

It was decided to make Mondays a film day for all social studies students. All classes of social studies meeting during the same period on that day assemble in a large visual aids room. Since there are six periods during the day, six different instructors on any Monday assume responsibility for the discussions accompanying the films. Since many teachers are present each period, every member of the department gets a chance to see, over a period of time, every other member of the department handle a teaching situation. Since there is no pressure of any kind to imitate anyone or to follow any set procedure, individual teachers have experimented in various ways, from traditional question and answer lessons to panels of students and committee work. The result has been a stimulating experience for all members of the department who share experiences, observe each other informally, confront similar problems, and gain from each other's efforts.

Although the possibility of all classes being ready for a film at the same time might be questioned, the approach described above made it easy for teachers to begin to share ways of improving the teaching-learning situation.

It should be noted that the schools that have been most successful in their in-service training programs have made the training a part of the teachers' work load. It has not been something added to the already full schedule of a hard-working teacher. It does not come at the end of a school day when the teacher's thoughts are focused upon aspects of life other than school work. Some schools have worked in-service training into pre-school conferences for which teachers are paid; other schools have provided substitute teachers to work while in-service training excursions are provided for members of the staff. Still other schools have dismissed children for a portion of the school day and have held

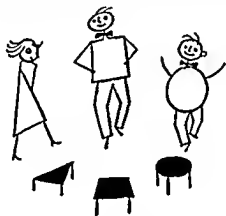


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their in-service sessions at times that ordinarily would be devoted to regular teaching. Official leaders must let the public know that in-service training costs money. It is an up-grading process to produce more effective teachers. It involves the expenditure of money to get better education.

When Is Reassignment Desirable?

All teachers have their strong and their weak points. All will fail in some situations and all will be successful if placed in the right position. Supervision has the responsibility for helping people find the situation in which they can be successful.



Thousands of teachers are misfits in their work because they have been assigned to the wrong job.

Advanced industries have recognized that untold productive hours are wasted because of misplaced people, and money is spent freely to match a person's skills to the type of job in which he can be most productive. In education, where a misplaced person squanders not only his own time but the efforts and energies of all his students, few systematic efforts have been attempted to make the most effective use of available skills. Proper placement means happier teachers, less frustration, less energy expended to achieve successful results, and greater

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accomplishments through the most effective use of available skills. Schools must face the facts squarely and begin to take systematic steps to put people into the jobs for which they are fitted.

What can the supervisor do? He can take a firm stand against permanent appointment to specific assignments, institute a careful analysis of job requirements, make a skills survey, and at every opportunity match people to the job for which they are suited.

Assignment of a teacher to a new position should be temporary, for a probationary period. Any assignment for any teacher should be subject to change. If skills and abilities are to be used most effectively, the school administration must not allow a person to remain in an unsatisfactory position because of poor placement. In too many systems, teachers are frozen in jobs for which they are not fitted. In these systems, teachers feel that their rights are violated if they are moved to a different assignment. No consideration is given to the rights of children who may be receiving poor education because of a mistake in placement.

It should be understood that positions are held on a basis of mutual satisfaction. Change may be made at any time if the teacher's greatest contribution is being hindered by the situation in which he is placed. Teachers should be as free to point out factors that limit their effectiveness as the administration is.

Does it take the same qualifications to teach seventh-grade mathematics as it does to teach twelfth-grade mathematics? Can the same teacher be equally successful with the youngsters in a poor neighborhood and a wealthy community? Are teachers equally effective with slow and fast youngsters? Undoubtedly the answer to all these questions is "No." A specific teaching situation must be analyzed to determine the qualities a teacher needs to fit it.

Suppose a supervisor has to find an English teacher for a junior high school in the Italian district of a large city. Certain requirements are immediately obvious. The teacher must be-

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lieve that literature is a tool to help promote understanding of human relations rather than a selected body of ancient classics. The teacher must not feel contempt for anyone whose ancestors did not come from northwestern Europe. Youthful energy and emotion must not be considered an evil to be driven out of the pupils. The teacher must have a thorough understanding of democracy and ways to make it work, as well as an earnest desire to help people meet everyday problems. All teachers will not have these qualities. Yet, if supervision is to make the program truly effective, it must make this kind of analysis in the assignment of teachers. A system cannot excuse itself on the plea of bigness.

Leading industries have found it helpful to take an inventory of skills of workers. Potential skills are classified as well as the skills that the workers are using at the time of the inventory. When a new position opens, reference is made to the listed skills of each worker and the one with the skills that fit the job description is promoted. The knowledge that the organization has a listing of his abilities and that these will be considered when a better position opens has a good effect on a teacher's morale.

The writer does not know of a single school system that has worked out such an inventory of skills.

Even if the supervisor doesn't make a formal survey, he should be on the alert for people with special skills, such as the teacher who is a good discussion leader or a skilled laboratory technician. As opportunities develop, the teacher's program should be changed in terms of his skills and his wishes.

The principal of a large New York City junior high school not only watches for special aptitudes and interests of the faculty, but encourages teachers to express interests and show their abilities. He studies the records of teachers, including the courses they have taken and their past achievements. He listens to them in the course of their teaching and at individual and group conferences. One of his most effective approaches is encouraging people to talk freely in informal conversations, so

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that they can reveal their own thoughts and feelings without self-consciousness. He does this by showing interest in their ideas and respect for their opinions, whether he agrees with them or not. People in his school do not feel the metaphorical dash of cold water on their thoughts which has often led teachers to resolve never to express themselves again lest they be exposed to what is, in effect, veiled insult. He is willing to postpone other work in which he is engaged so that he may talk to people who cannot see him at other times.

As a result, teachers voluntarily assume duties, such as special patrols, program-making, and running of bazaars and exhibitions, which have previously been to a great extent the responsibilities of supervisors. Another result is the uncovering of hitherto unsuspected abilities of many teachers.

In an important sense, the readjustment of teachers' programs in terms of skills is a program of curriculum reorganization. The teacher is in large part the curriculum. As teaching is improved, the curriculum becomes more satisfactory. As teachers' programs are adjusted to enable them to make better use of their talents, their teaching is improved and the curriculum is enriched.

Some teachers have physical limitations that should be considered in placement and reassignment. Formulation of teaching schedules and assignment of rooms involve considerations other than knowledge of subject matter and number of students. Giving the teacher who is always cold a laboratory on the sheltered side of the building, and the teacher with a bad heart a first-floor classroom is not coddling. It is efficient use of available manpower.

People can't be moved about like chessmen. Their human qualities, their strengths and frailties, must be considered and accommodated. An adjustment to meet a handicap pays dividends in morale and improved teaching power, but it should be made in consultation with the persons involved. *Supervision is in large part the removal of irritating features to free the creative potential of the teaching staff.*

Cumulative sick leave plays a part in getting full efficiency

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from a staff. A superintendent in an Ohio city opposed the cumulative sick leave for years on the grounds that women teachers who left the system to get married often managed to become ill just in time to use their sick leave. He saw no connection between this action and the school's policy of not employing married teachers. Neither did he see that as a result of his decision, which was based on this one abuse, many children suffered because teachers whose energies could have been restored continued to drag through their required tasks, since they could not afford to have their pay stopped. An intelligent sick-leave policy would have increased the effectiveness of teaching in that city.

Emphasis has been placed on putting the teacher where his talents are best utilized, matching the teacher to the job. What part does the teacher have in the decision?

He must have a major part. Otherwise, the emotional upset caused by the shift will hinder the utilization of skills as much as improper placement itself. The teacher should concur with the decision and should have a right and a way to appeal after the placement or shift has been made.

Will all teachers want the same positions? Not at all. Everyone likes the things he can do well. If a teacher is convinced that a placement or shift has been made because of special skills that enable him to do the job better than anyone else, he will want to do it. What people object to is being shifted as punishment or to make way for someone with political preference. Everyone wants to feel needed and to have a sense of doing a job that no one else can do as well.

When a teacher fails, the personnel administration has failed. Either the original selection was poor, the placement faulty, or the in-service training inadequate.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Use the help of the staff in selecting new personnel?
2. Have the staff establish standards to guide in the selection of new staff members?
3. Ask staff members to recommend persons they feel are best qualified for positions open in the staff?
4. Secure recommendations from outside persons and placement agencies whose judgment the staff respects?
5. Bring as many staff members as feasible into the initial screening?
6. Have representatives of the staff assist in the interviews?
7. Put the candidate at ease during the interview?
8. Hold a portion of the interview at the school if possible?
9. Make some part of each interview a social situation?
10. Let the candidate know where he stands at the close of the interview?
11. If the candidate is not selected, notify him of final choice and reasons for the selection?
12. Supplement personnel data sheets and interviews with observation of the candidate in action where possible?
13. Present an accurate picture of the position during the employment interview?
14. Make no promises that can't be fulfilled?
15. If the candidate is chosen, secure complete understanding of the agreement?
16. Make the new teacher feel he is wanted?
17. Introduce the new teacher to the staff?
18. Provide new teachers with information about services, regulations, and payment of salary?
19. Define clearly the functions and responsibilities of the new teacher?
20. Explain the development and problems of the school?

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21. Describe the background and accomplishments of the staff?
 22. Ask an experienced member of the staff to help the new teacher get started?
 23. Help the new teacher get acquainted in the community?
 24. Check with the new teacher from time to time to see what additional help is needed?
 25. Involve new teachers in committee work quickly?
 26. Believe the faculty can grow?
 27. Participate in the in-service training activities?
 28. Build the in-service program around new projects undertaken by the staff?
 29. Work for incorporation of in-service activities into the regular teaching program?
 30. Provide many types of in-service experiences for staff?
 31. Use experimental programs as one type of in-service training?
 32. Have an understanding that staff members may be re-assigned?
 33. Make an analysis of job requirements?
 34. Make and keep an up-to-date inventory of skills of staff members?
 35. Consider physical limitations in assignments and re-assignments?
 36. Make changes with the agreement of the teacher?
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Chapter 12

How Can Staff Needs Be Met?

The official leader is a personnel officer. The needs, the worries, the wishes of the staff are his concerns. If he wants to maintain a high morale in the group, he discovers what employee services are provided and works with the teachers to secure additional ones that are needed. He helps the group establish a procedure for alleviating complaints. He must have skill in thinking with teachers about their professional and personal problems on a person-to-person basis.

What Employee Services Are Essential?

As described in the chapter on building morale, the degree to which an employee lives up to his potential depends upon the way he feels about his job and the extent to which he is free from off-the-job distractions. Industry has found that it is profitable to supply employees with certain services. The number and kind vary from situation to situation and from time to time. During World War II, some industries secured gas coupons, purchased tires, arranged car pools to insure rides, located rooms and homes, organized recreational activities, and created credit unions in addition to the usual services. After the war, some of these services were dropped, because the need for them was not so great.

The employee services that should be provided must be determined by the needs of teachers in the given situation. Some schools in rural areas provide teacherages because of lack of adequate living quarters near the school. In other schools,

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special living accommodations are unnecessary because of the supply available in the community. Any employee service is essential if that service is required to have a satisfied teaching staff. Any employee service that will bring higher employee morale should receive serious consideration.

Every official leader will want to examine with his staff and the board of education the following employee services, which more and more schools throughout the country are providing:

Teachers' Rooms. A place where teachers can relax and talk before and after classes is extremely desirable. It releases the strain and tension of teaching and is concrete proof that the administration is concerned about the physical well-being of teachers.

Group Insurance. For years, industrial concerns have provided group insurance at low rates for employees. Schools cannot continue to lag behind industry and have an equal appeal to persons choosing a profession. Neither can official leaders continue to deny their concern for teachers with dependents by ignoring this basic type of security. An official leader should collect information concerning group insurance plans and submit it to the teacher-welfare committees and the board of education with encouragement to both to reach agreement on a desirable plan. If his recommendations are accepted, he should suggest to the board a system of monthly deductions rather than an annual payment, which increases budgeting difficulties of teachers. When the plan is placed in operation, he will have the responsibility of acquainting all new teachers with the benefits of becoming participants.

Hospitalization. Sudden heavy expenses due to sickness or accidents are difficult for anyone to meet. They are especially trying for a teacher on a limited, fixed salary. If the official leader wants to reduce unnecessary worry for teachers and avoid having them become harassed while trying to pay debts incurred during serious illness or accident, he will take the lead in getting his teachers enrolled in one of the numerous hospitalization and health and accident insurance plans.

Cumulative Sick Leave. Closely allied to hospitalization and sickness and accident insurance is cumulative sick leave. Many schools have a policy of providing a certain number of days of sick leave per year, but they do not permit a carry-over to succeeding years of days not used. This plan is unsatisfactory because a serious illness will extend beyond the allocated number of days; such a plan provides only the type of insurance that is not needed—insurance against minor illnesses. If teachers are permitted to accumulate unused sick-leave days, the cost to the school system is not any greater and teachers have insurance against the kind of illness that threatens their security—an extended illness.

Credit Union. Teachers need a place where they can borrow money for short periods of time at a low rate of interest and a place where they can invest money at a higher than average rate. Although the two concepts seem contradictory, teachers' experiences with their own credit unions lead to the conclusion that both benefits accrue when a teachers' credit union is organized. A rate of 1 per cent per month enables the borrower to get short-term loans at less than bank-loan interest rates and the teacher investor is able to get a return on his money of more than 5 per cent. The official leader can acquaint teachers with the advantages of a credit union and secure the aid of credit union specialists in organizing one.

Monthly Checks. The pattern of nine or ten pay checks per year is being supplanted by a twelve-payment plan. A few schools have advanced to a semi-monthly payment schedule. The added cost to the school system is slight, but the advantage to teachers in budgeting their salary is great. The official leader's function lies in calling the attention of the staff to the various possible payment plans and helping them reach a decision on the recommendation they want to make to the board of education.

Teachers' Purchasing Associations. In some states and communities teachers' associations have worked out agreements with certain merchants for reduced prices on household equip-

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ment, clothes, and so forth. Such agreements give the teachers greater buying power and reduce the economic difficulties many face. Other teachers have formed cooperatives that enable them to buy at a wholesale-plus-cost-of-handling price. Seeking preferential rates or organizing a cooperative may be frowned upon by certain groups in the community, yet the official leader has a responsibility to his staff to assist them in improving their economic position.

If the official leader does not take the lead in seeking increased employee services for teachers, other individuals will. These and other services are coming for teachers. They will be obtained with or without the aid of official leaders. To retain any type of leadership in the group, the official leader must take the initiative in helping teachers secure these services, which are commonplace in other working groups.

A handbook of employee services is helpful to teachers, especially to those entering a new system. This handbook should include, among other items: descriptions of the pension, group insurance, and hospitalization plans; statement of school policies on employment, tenure, salary scale increments, and promotion and payment procedures; a list of papers and certificates that must be filed with the administration; and the names of members of the teacher welfare committee. The Tulsa, Oklahoma, handbook, *Now Wait A Minute* (1954 edition), is an excellent example of such a handbook.

How Should Complaints Be Treated?

In spite of the employee services provided, any situation will have some irritating factors. In a school, they may be simple things, such as lack of chalk, a sticking window, a chair with splinters that start runs in stockings, noise from another class, and poor lighting. Or they may be more important items, such as low salaries, lack of opportunity for promotion, large classes, too much clerical work, too heavy a load of extracurricular activities, too much homework, insufficient recognition, transfer

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to a less attractive school, delay in administrative action on requests, unkept promises, too many faculty meetings, and real or imagined favoritism.

It is impossible to identify all the causes of irritation. They vary from teacher to teacher. Lack of heat in a room may upset one teacher and not be noticed by another who is disturbed by the slowness of the service that supplies visual aids, or by the type of furniture in the classroom.

The important point for teachers is not that irritations exist but the way official leadership reacts to them. Unless the staff knows the leadership is attempting to do something to remove the irritating factors, they grow in the mind of the staff members until they are magnified all out of proportion. Regardless of its trivial nature, an annoyance cannot be classified as unimportant by the official leader if it irritates someone.



If an irritation grows to the point where a teacher begins to talk about it to others, a minor factor in the situation is on its way to becoming a complaint. Through discussion, failure to have a window fixed may grow in the eyes of the teacher until it represents a lack of concern on the part of the supervisor. If no one shows concern, a complaint becomes necessary. And if a complaint is not quickly and adequately met, it may become a grievance.

A grievance exists as soon as an employee thinks or feels that something is wrong. It is a grievance if the teacher thinks it is, if it represents in his eyes careless, negligent, and unfair supervision. The first step in the development of a grievance is simple job difficulty. It moves into the second phase when the difficulty is not treated.

Through discussion with his fellows, the teacher becomes more conscious of the difficulty and tries to solve the problem himself by taking action. Loafing on the job, tardiness, absentee-

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ism, open criticism of the supervision, or an angry accusation of administrative failure may be the course decided upon.

Individual grievances that remain unsolved may become group grievances. If an individual teacher becomes convinced that the supervisor is unfair and states his case to the rest of the faculty, the faculty may back the teacher and have a group complaint against the supervisor. When a grievance reaches this stage, the administration faces a critical problem which in some cases can be solved only by removal of the official leader. *Since a continuing irritation may have such serious consequences, it is important that the official leader develop procedures for hearing and resolving dissatisfactions.*

During the past few decades industry has established machinery by which dissatisfactions can be made known to management. But schools are almost completely lacking in ways of calling complaints to the attention of the administration. Through fear of being labeled trouble-makers, teachers have hesitated to complain. Many have found that the only way to resolve their problems is to move to a new position or to make an outside activity their chief interest. In either case, the staff has lost their valuable contributions. Official leaders in schools must take steps to provide means for irritations, complaints, and grievances to be eliminated or treated.

The first step is to make sure that these dissatisfactions come to the attention of the official leader. He must let the staff know that he is concerned about their difficulties and that he is working to improve the situation. Some of the irritating items may be beyond the power of the school administrator to change. If so, he should make clear the restrictions under which he is operating. When the administrator asks the teachers for suggestions concerning ways conditions can be improved in view of such limitations, many of the complaints disappear.

But simply telling teachers of these handicaps is not enough. Any supervisor must make an honest scrutiny of the teaching environment from time to time to discover irritants that he can remove. He must do all in his power to remove them and keep

the staff informed of steps being taken. *Action on his part is proof of his sincerity.* Information concerning progress and obstacles encountered and opportunity for suggestions of more efficient methods of attack will decrease the impatience caused by delay. The supervisor can gain clues to persons who are disturbed by checking absenteeism, tardiness, or loafing on the job — ways in which the dissatisfied teacher can express his disapproval of working conditions. They are definite signs that the official leader should initiate talks with the teacher exhibiting such behavior. They are preliminary actions to open aggression, such as overt criticism of the official leadership.

In spite of all the supervisor can do, some complaints and some real grievances will develop in a working group. Prevention will reduce the number, but the supervisor must understand the steps in the development of grievances and work out techniques for dealing with them.

When a grievance is discovered by the official leader or is brought to his attention by the employee, it should be discussed thoroughly in a quiet, uninterrupted, man-to-man conference.

The discussion should not be conducted before an audience. In such a situation, both the man with the complaint and the supervisor must save face. Then the teacher must make his complaint sound as serious as possible and he must demand complete satisfaction. When other people are looking on, any retreat from his original demands, no matter how unreal they are, cannot be easily made.

Listening to the man's story with real interest is essential. A detached attitude on the part of the supervisor will convince the employee that he is right in feeling that the administration does not care what happens to him. The supervisor's interest need not be feigned — a real supervisor will have a vital interest in factors in his school which cause teachers to become dissatisfied.

If the teacher with the complaint is emotionally upset, he should be asked to repeat parts of the story. Usually the complaint will have been carefully rehearsed, and a question such

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as "Did I get this right?" will serve to release the emotional tension and center attention on the facts in the case.

If the discussion cannot be completed in one interview, the supervisor should set an exact date and time for a continuation of the discussion. The employee must not feel that he is being put off or that his supervisor is not going to help work out a solution.

When all the facts have been ascertained, the settlement should be made on the basis of logic and common sense. This type of settlement is not difficult if the emphasis throughout the conference has been on securing facts. If the complaint is justified, the responsibility for alleviating it rests on the shoulders of the administration. A decision should be made and the employee should be notified of it. It is the responsibility of the supervisor to reach a satisfactory agreement with the employee on the decision. Unless the employee leaves the supervisor thoroughly sold on the final agreement, the complaint is still an incipient grievance.

A supervisor cannot afford to put off dealing with a problem in which emotions are involved, because such problems grow larger if they are disregarded by the administration. Personal problems cannot be solved by pretending that they do not exist. The only person who pretends is the supervisor.



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The foregoing procedure has been developed in industry, but it will apply equally well in schools. However, it may be more satisfactory to attack the problem cooperatively. Many faculties have established teacher-welfare committees to study working conditions and to take steps cooperatively with the official leaders to remove causes of dissatisfactions and to plan more satisfactory personnel policies. These teacher-welfare committees can also serve as the agencies for listening to real or fancied grievances and for recommending adjustments. Such committees, working cooperatively with the administration, represent real sharing of responsibility and authority. If they must work in opposition to the official leadership, it is time for the entire staff to examine its group procedures and to rethink the functions of individual members.

In dealing with complaints, an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure, but if the prevention is not completely effective, immediate action should be taken to eradicate difficulties that do arise.

How Should Conferences with Individuals Be Conducted?

Discussions of complaints and dissatisfactions are not the only type of interview a supervisor must conduct. Much of his work is done in person-to-person interviews. Employing, planning a program, evaluating a lesson, considering a proposal or request, and interpreting a policy are only samples of the constant use the supervisor makes of the interview. Much of his success as a personnel administrator and a group leader depends upon his skill in the interview technique.

No pat formula can be established for an interview. If there is too close adherence to a set pattern, the supervisor's interview is ineffective and is regarded as a joke by the staff. A supervisor in one of the important school systems of the country had read books on the psychology of managing people. In conferences he used flattery, promised rewards, fear, and anger in

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the proper proportion and at just the right time to obtain his ends. With some personnel this technique might have been successful. With the group he supervised it did not work. They had read the same books. They could predict the trend of the conference and block it if they wished.

The difficulty this man experienced was due to a false concept of the purpose of the conference. He felt a conference was the place to influence a subordinate to accept a decision he had made in advance. He conceived of supervision as making decisions and getting others to accept them.

All his difficulties and dissatisfaction would have disappeared if he had learned that the supervisor's function in education is to create situations in which planning can occur, not to make the plans. *A conference between supervisor and supervised is to produce cooperative planning, not to impose a plan on the subordinate.*

Using the conference for cooperative planning does not mean that the supervisor will not plan in advance. He will. But it will be a special kind of planning. During the war the writer had an opportunity to observe a consulting firm at work. Their business was to guide the planning of industrial concerns over which they had no control. Their most important technique was the individual conference. Before each conference, the consultant spent about half the anticipated conference time in getting ready. He reviewed all the information he had about the person with whom the conference was scheduled. He decided upon the *pivotal* questions for the talk. He determined additional information to be secured. He thought through possible solutions that might emerge from the conference. Under no circumstances would one of these consultants allow himself to be drawn into a conference without pre-planning.

No conference was scheduled without a definite purpose. It might be an exploratory conference to establish facts, or a conference to reach a solution to a problem. In any case, the conference had a purpose.

It should be emphasized again that the consulting firm did

not conceive of the man-to-man conference as a selling proposition. The purpose was not to convince anyone of the rightness of the firm's thinking, but to reach answers through thinking together.

The purpose of an interview should be clear to the supervised. A man kept in the dark is afraid and insecure. He plays his

cards cautiously until he knows where the conference is going and what is expected of him. If the supervisor does not want to waste time, he should state the purpose early in the conference or announce it beforehand.



Of course, if the conference is requested by the teacher, the supervisor has an equal right to know the purpose. In either case, the person invited to the conference has a right to ask what it is to accomplish.

If the conference is to be successful, it should be held in a quiet place where the participants will not be interrupted. A conference is an attempt to reach a union of minds and purposes. It is delicate procedure. Most people maintain a front, composed of certain mannerisms, points of view, and positions which they believe their role in life demands of them. If the participants do not declare their positions openly, the conference becomes nothing more than a sparring session. They may win each other's respect for skill in offensive and defensive warfare, but they do little to win each other's confidence.

A quiet, uninterrupted atmosphere is necessary to facilitate the lowering of "fronts." As long as a man feels he may regret letting the other person know what he is really like, he will not take the chance. He does not reveal the way he really feels if he does not trust the other person or if he fears that the information he offers may be used against him. No one tells his secret desires or plans on a street corner or at a party where all may

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hear. Nor will a person express himself openly if the conference is being constantly interrupted by people entering the conference room or by the ringing of the telephone. No skilled psychiatrist or counselor holds a consultation where interruptions may occur that will break the trend of thought or that will destroy the atmosphere of mutual confidence. If the need for an interview arises in a crowded, noisy situation, the official leader should suggest retiring to a quiet location for the discussion.

Interruptions do not matter, however, if rapport has not been established—neither does the conference!

The building of rapport depends upon putting the other person at ease. If the supervisor has known the teacher for years, and if their work together has produced respect and trust, rapport has already been established, and this phase of the conference is taken care of automatically. If the supervisor has built a reputation for helpfulness, honesty, and trustworthiness, rapport is more easily established. He is a respected person until proved otherwise.

But even with the persons who trust him, certain actions can destroy a supervisor's effectiveness. Emphasizing superiority is fatal. Some supervisors arrange their office in such a way that their chair is in front of the window. Any person talking to them is at a disadvantage. Superiority feelings can be displayed by voice, by insisting on fitting the conference into the supervisor's schedule, by not giving the teacher a part in determining the length of the interview. The surest way of guarding against such behavior is to remind oneself constantly that supervision is a service operation, that supervisors exist only to help the teacher.

Barriers can be built in other ways. Always getting the desk



between the supervisor and the supervised is one technique. Sticking to Mr., Miss, Mrs., or Dr. is another. When a supervisor keeps his shield high he cannot expect a teacher to lower his.

Informality is of great importance in conferences. Many supervisors fail to achieve it because they believe they must impress the persons with whom they work. They fail to realize that the only way people are impressed is by real value. If a supervisor has worth, it will make itself evident. Teachers will say, "He grows on you." Sham is equally easy for teachers to detect. A good show is recognized for what it is worth.

A successful conference cannot be rushed. When understandings are to be reached upon which future action will be based, both parties must have ample opportunity to clear up any bazy points.

Neither must the conference lag. A sense of constant progress must exist. Progress, however, may be in the direction of establishing better relations, as well as in logical movement to a conclusion. Signs of impatience or dissatisfaction or confusion are an indication of a need for readjusting the speed of the conference.

It is not always possible to start a conference at a fast pace even with an old and trusted friend. He may be laboring under some emotional stress resulting from an immediate conflict with another teacher or with a member of his family. Financial problems or other personal matters may have caused him to be less acute than usual. Paying attention to the emotional status of the teacher and adjusting to suit his mood will pay dividends in successful conferences.

A conference should end with a definite conclusion. It may be nothing more than the statement, "These are the facts we agreed on, aren't they?" Or it may be, "It is my understanding that we agree to try this solution." In no case should the teacher leave with the feeling that nothing has been accomplished and that the conference has been a waste of time. If the conference has not gone as far as the supervisor had hoped, he

should not show his disappointment or disgust. Rather, he should try to plan with the teacher what steps should he taken next.

A conference should end with an outline of the next steps, and the teacher should be made to feel that he is capable of taking them. If he leaves with a fear of failure, the agreement will have been futile. Such a situation is worse than no agreement at all, because confidence in the supervisor will be lost when the procedure agreed upon fails, as it most certainly will if the participants lack confidence in it.

The supervisor has a responsibility for believing in a plan before it is accepted and for conveying his belief to the teacher. If doubts have not been eliminated in the minds of both persons, the planning period has not been adequate.

After the conference is over, the supervisor should make a record of the agreements and of his own commitments. Failure to remember or to live up to agreements is a violation of the teacher's confidence and will result in the destruction of future effectiveness with him. Few people have memories good enough to keep all the agreements made in a busy schedule. Memories must be supplemented by written records.

Finally, a supervisor can never afford to lose self-control. Any display of anger indicates weakness and gives rise to suspicion that results in destroying rapport and wrecking the conference.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Work for the employee services that will increase teacher happiness and efficiency?
2. Take the lead in securing group insurance, a hospitalization plan, cumulative sick leave, a credit union, payment on a twelve-month basis, and favorable buying arrangements for teachers?
3. Prepare a handbook describing the employee services of the system?

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4. Let staff members know of concern about their dissatisfactions?
 5. Ask for suggestions for ways to improve working conditions?
 6. Establish a teacher-welfare committee to work on improvement of working conditions?
 7. Use person-to-person conferences as planning sessions?
 8. Prepare for a conference by getting all the available information bearing on the situation and by deciding upon the pivotal questions to be considered?
 9. Make the purpose of the conference clear to the other person?
 10. Hold the conference in a place where there will not be interruptions?
 11. Put the other person at ease?
 12. Avoid any emphasis or evidence of superior status?
 13. Seek informality in conferences?
 14. Provide sufficient time for conferences?
 15. Watch for clues concerning the emotional status of the other person?
 16. Reach a conclusion or an agreement on next steps?
 17. Build confidence of the person in his ability to take the steps agreed upon?
 18. Keep a record of agreements reached and commitments made?
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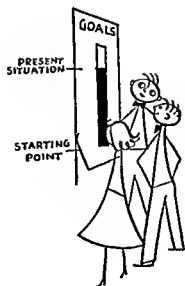
Far Further Exploration

There is growing recognition of the fact that it is essential to involve workers in personnel administration. F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickinson in *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939) question assumptions that have been made about the operation of industrial organizations. George Halsey in *Supervising People* (New York: Harper and Brothers, rev. ed., 1953) mixes anecdotes and generalizations to show how important the feelings of the

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employee are. A study by the American Vocational Association, *Factors Affecting the Satisfaction of Home Economics Teachers* (Washington, D. C.: American Vocational Association, 1948) pinpoints the problem for supervisors and administrators in education. In *Creative School Administration* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954), pp. 433-454, Harold Shane and W. A. Yauch suggest ways of involving teachers in personnel administration.

Supervision as Skill in Evaluation



Evaluation is the process of making judgments that are to be used as a basis for planning. It consists of establishing goals, collecting evidence concerning growth or lack of growth toward goals, making judgments about the evidence, and revising procedures and goals in light of the judgments. It is a procedure for improving the product, the process, and even the goals themselves.

Evaluation is an important phase of group leadership. It is the procedure through which a supervisor can bring about group self-improvement.

Chapter 13

How Can Teachers Be Helped To Evaluate Their Work?

The hope for the improvement of the school program lies in the revision of existing practices and procedures in light of sound evaluation. The supervisor has a responsibility for helping staff members to develop skill in evaluating teaching processes, the work and growth of pupils, and procedures used in faculty operation.

What Is the Place of Rating in Evaluation?

Many persons assume that rating is satisfactory evaluation. It is not! Rating teachers is the passing of judgment on their work by someone who assumes superior knowledge about the teaching process and the activities being conducted. The results of the rating are used by persons outside the classroom for purposes other than the improvement of instruction for the class in which the rating occurred. On all these counts, rating violates the basic tenets of useful evaluation.

The validity of the rating process is open also to serious question. Rating based on classroom observation assumes that one or two visits to a class provide sufficient evidence for making a judgment concerning the quality of the teaching. Let's examine that assumption.

Can it be assumed that the lesson observed by the rater is an accurate sample of the teaching that class is receiving? The evidence points in the other direction. In the first place, if the teacher and pupils are not accustomed to visitors, they are un-

der strain and their actions are unnatural. Second, the supervisor may come into the class during an atypical situation. A poor teacher doing a good piece of work will receive a high rating. A visit to the room of an excellent teacher may come at a time when a disruption has occurred, and his rating will be poor. Third, the lesson observed may have been a carefully planned and rehearsed performance. The validity of ratings based on observations cannot be assumed unless the visitations cover a more representative sampling of classroom time than is customary at the present time.

In fact, some rating is based on classroom observation in which only portions of a lesson are seen. Some supervisors stop in the classroom for five- or ten-minute periods and decide upon the level of teaching on the basis of these small samples. They lift the sample out of its context and assume that they understand what is happening in the total learning situation. Such a naive approach to observation further decreases the possibility of a reliable rating.

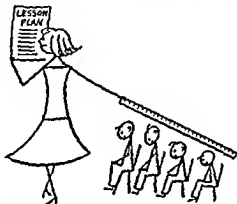
But the most serious charge against rating concerns the harmful effects it has on instruction. Rating establishes one pattern to which the teacher must conform. In many situations the rating is done on the basis of a rating form worked out by the administration and the supervisory staff without help from the teachers. Many rating check lists contain such things as teacher posture, evenness of window shades in the room, the appearance of the teacher's desk, the extent to which the teacher follows the plan, and other details that may or may not cause teaching to be effective. In the attempt to conform to the pattern set by the rating sheet, attention is diverted from the possibility of a more creative type of teaching.

Rating brings with it a reduction of the freedom of the teacher and the class to follow the learning procedures that seem most profitable to them. In some systems where rating is still practiced, teachers are required to keep a lesson plan available on an empty desk in order that a supervisor entering the room may be able to get a picture of what is happening. This

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procedure is followed as a convenience for the supervisor. It is very clear that the teacher is functioning to satisfy the supervisor, and that the supervisor is the important individual involved. Time that the teacher could more profitably spend in conferring with children or parents or collecting materials for the classroom instruction must be devoted to the preparation of a lesson plan to be used if the supervisor appears.

Requiring a lesson plan for possible use during a supervisory visit has two additional detrimental effects. It forces teachers



to overlook real opportunities for purposeful learning. The teacher does not dare to deviate from a plan that was made up in advance of the classroom situation. Suggestions by students of more worth-while activities must be overlooked or suppressed because the teacher knows that the supervisor will consider him less satisfactory if the class is found working on items not in the lesson plan. *The ability to force a class to follow a pre-conceived teacher plan is considered a virtue!*

A second result of preparing a plan for the supervisor is that the use of the same plan year after year is encouraged. It decreases the possibility of creative teaching and leads teachers to teach the same course in the same way every year. Preparing a lesson plan is time-consuming. It is much easier to use the lesson plan that was prepared the first year of teaching and thus meet the requirement of having a plan available for

the supervisor. Since it is a virtue not to vary from the plan, teachers fall into the habit of following the same procedure year after year. In this way, prepared lesson plans hinder teacher growth.

Rating keeps the supervisor from helping the teacher with his weaknesses. Since salary increases and advancement are determined by what the supervisor sees in the teacher's classroom, the teacher puts on the very best show possible. In some schools, where teachers have developed systems for knowing when the supervisor is in the building, the supervisor sees a staged performance whenever he appears. Teachers do not dare say to the supervisor, "This is the type of help I need. What suggestions do you have?" To admit weakness decreases the possibility of a good rating.

Most serious of all, rating prevents cooperative working relationships between the supervisor and the supervised. Always the person supervised must be on guard not to do anything that will indicate lack of strength or that will antagonize the person whose rating will affect his future. Under such conditions the supervisor can never be sure about his relationships with teachers. He must always work under the suspicion that people are going along with him because they want his favor as a means of securing advancement.



Rating is unsatisfactory on all counts. It is not satisfactory evaluation; it prevents the teacher from asking for needed help and the supervisor from seeing a normal teaching situation; its concomitant evils keep a teacher from being creative and from taking advantage of opportunities for effective learning; it eliminates any possibility for cooperative relations between the teacher and the status leader. Rating should be recognized as an administrative device used to establish a base for salary increases, pro-

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motion, or dismissal, and as a deterrent to improving instruction.

What Is the Value of Achievement Tests in Evaluation?

Some schools attempt to judge the work of teachers by the scores their pupils make on achievement tests. If a teacher's class does well on achievement tests, he is assumed to be doing good teaching. If the class does not equal national or school norms, it is assumed that something is wrong.

Examination of this plan for judging teacher effectiveness reveals that it has many weaknesses. If, by chance, a teacher has an intelligent class, the pupils will learn in spite of anything the teacher does, and the results on the achievement tests will make it appear that the teacher has done excellent work. If the class is far below average ability or has had poor teachers in previous years, superior teaching may not result in the attainment of school-wide or national norms.

Some school systems make similar misinterpretations in judging the success of their programs. In one school where the average I.Q. is 117, the publicity of the school has praised the teaching because the pupils are slightly above the national norms on achievement tests. With pupils of such a high quality, the scores should be far above national norms.

A judgment based on achievement-test results does not consider sufficient evidence. Emphasis is placed on facts taught; other phases of teaching, which may be more important, are ignored. For example, it gives no recognition to the skill the teacher has shown in guiding the emotional and social advancement of pupils.

Achievement tests selected by someone outside a particular learning situation may be invalid because they attempt to measure attainment of objectives other than the ones the teacher and class are seeking. Usually the persons best able to judge whether an achievement test has value in evaluating the work being done in a given class are the teacher and pupils.

They know what they are trying to do and whether a test measures it.

The use of achievement tests for school-wide evaluation restricts teaching. It forces a teacher to follow a pattern of learning activities which may be unsatisfactory for his group. He dares not use his own judgment or that of his group because deviation from the outline of facts to be taught will bring poorer pupil results on the test and a low estimate of the teacher. The same criticism can be made of city-wide or school-wide final examinations of subject-matter information.

Tests are tools. They can be used in evaluation or they can be applied in a way that makes useful evaluation impossible. In evaluation, tests can be used to learn more about pupils, to help pupils discover their abilities, status, and growth, and to provide a basis of judgment concerning activities that are needed most. Then they are tools being used by the class group, including the teacher, to form judgments and to direct their own activity more intelligently.

How Can Teachers Evaluate Their Work?

If rating and comparison of class scores on achievement tests are unsatisfactory, how can teachers judge their work? Everyone needs to know how well he is doing.

The best hope seems to lie in self-evaluation by the total staff, by classroom groups, by individual teachers, and by individual pupils.

Evaluation of teaching must be a part of an entire school program of evaluation. It must not be a treatment that is applied to teaching alone. Teachers cannot be expected to participate wholeheartedly in the evaluation of teaching unless it follows or goes concurrently with an evaluation of the school's goals, administrative procedure, and supervisory techniques. It cannot be something forced on them. It is a part of a total process of improvement.

The center of focus in an evaluation program must be im-

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provement of the learning situation for pupils. The principal question must be, "How can we improve our procedures to bring about more desirable pupil growth?"

A basic tenet of the evaluation approach is that all persons involved in the situation being evaluated should have a part in establishing the criteria by which they will be evaluated. In helping teachers evaluate themselves, they must be given a chance to help establish the criteria. More on this point later.

Everyone's participation in the evaluation process insures validity as far as purposes are concerned. Each one knows what his goals are and will make his judgments in terms of achievement of those goals. Each person can maintain professional and personal integrity because he is using a process to improve his ability in doing the things he values.

Participation in the evaluation develops more mature and responsible teachers. When a supervisor makes a judgment about teaching, the responsibility for improving the instruction rests with him. He knows what is wrong and it is his duty to improve it. When teachers make the judgments and find themselves unsatisfactory, they are responsible to themselves for improvement.

Self-evaluation centers the full attention of the teacher on the learning situation. Time need no longer be devoted to fooling the supervisor.

Self-evaluation enables the teacher to bring pupils into the evaluation. The teacher is able to share the responsibility that has been delegated to him.

If self-evaluation is to be effective, certain conditions must prevail. The teacher must see it as a procedure for getting more



satisfaction out of his job. He will not want to evaluate his teaching if the results can harm him. A teacher's self-evaluation must never be filed away by someone who will use it as a basis for salary increase or promotion.

The teacher must feel secure. Self-evaluation is a process engaged in by people who feel secure in their status, in their relationships with each other, in their ability, and in the possibility of progress. If a supervisor wants to stimulate self-evaluation, his first job will be to build this security in his teachers.

Evaluation will not be considered necessary by persons who do not want to improve. Hence the focus in the beginning of the process must be on seeking agreement as to goals, on stimulating desire to obtain these goals, and on developing belief that improvement is possible.

The supervisor must recognize that many teachers are satisfied with the work they are doing. To help these teachers move toward an evaluation of their work, it is necessary to make them concerned with the improvement of their skills. One of the ways that school systems have attempted to arouse this concern is by bringing in outside speakers. This may or may not be effective. A staff may feel that they are as qualified to make judgments concerning teaching as any outside expert is, and may reject any ideas that be advances. If the speaker is effective in relating his comments to the values the staff holds, he may succeed in arousing their desire to work on better attainment of these values.

A procedure that has proved effective in many situations is to bring student panels, composed of various types of students, to faculty meetings to present to the faculty their reactions to the teaching they are experiencing. It has proved more effective to put the emphasis on how teaching can be improved rather than on what is wrong. Students feel freer to talk about improvement they desire rather than about things teachers do wrong. Since teachers still hold power over students through marks and credits, students do not always trust the objectivity

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of the teaching staff in considering school problems. By putting emphasis on the kinds of improvement students want, the building of defenses by the staff is avoided and teachers have a chance to find out what pupils really want from them.

Other schools have asked the guidance counselors to share reactions of pupils to the teaching in the school. When the remarks of the counselor are general and when no specific reference is made to any teacher, this procedure has paid dividends in getting teachers to consider how their teaching looks to students.

When a staff has become concerned about improving instruction, agreement must be sought on what constitutes a good learning situation. One technique for reaching a common understanding that has worked in many schools is the cooperative development of a self-evaluation check list composed of items that the staff believes are important. When the check list is formulated by the staff as a whole, the process serves an in-service training function. It gets teachers to explore the concept of better teaching; it provides for an interchange of ideas which will broaden the thinking of all members of the staff; it leads to consensus in the staff which provides a basis for the evaluation of teaching techniques in faculty discussion and in individual conferences between the supervisor and the teacher.

In addition to the check list, individual teachers should be encouraged to develop their own techniques of evaluating their teaching, particularly bringing students into the evaluation. Some teachers ask for an evaluation at the end of a course. Students are requested to answer anonymously such questions as: What has helped you most in this course? How could the course be changed better to meet your needs? On the basis of the comments of many teachers who have tried this procedure, it appears that asking students to make positive suggestions gets better results than requesting them to indicate weaknesses of the class. The process would have more purpose if the evaluation were conducted during the term, when changes could be

made that would improve the class operation for the pupils who made the suggestions.

Other teachers use the suggestion-box technique. Students are asked to drop suggestions for class improvement into a box kept on the teacher's desk. For the most part, this procedure has been used by the more timid teacher. More self-assured teachers have found that open class discussions in which suggestions are made by the student to class members as well as to the teacher are more enlightening. The analysis that the class makes of suggestions helps both the teacher and the student who offer suggestions.

In either of these procedures, the final decision is made by the teacher. Students are asked to supply data that can be used as the basis for judgment and the revision of plans. Neither process is cooperative.

Other teachers make the evaluation of class procedures a cooperative process through use of student-teacher planning. They recognize that planning takes time, but they believe that it is a valuable learning experience. They assume that as children learn to evaluate their learning experiences and plan ways of improving their work, self-direction is being developed. Supervisors should encourage this form of self-evaluation. When class planning involves both planning and evaluation, the teaching is sure to improve.

In encouraging teachers to move into pupil-teacher planning, it will be desirable to suggest that they center attention on the "how" rather than on the "who" in any situation. As a class looks back at an experience and discusses the mistakes that were made and the ways to improve the process in the future, specific individual actions by the teacher or by a pupil should not be isolated from the total procedure. If the pronoun "we" is emphasized, this result will be obtained. Helpful questions are: *What mistakes did we make? How could we improve next time? What successes did we have? Should we change our goals?* These questions eliminate pointing fingers at individuals and leave people free to suggest improvement without fear of

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hurting anyone's feelings. Further, they leave the individual free to analyze his own participation without a sense of conceit or guilt. The emphasis in the evaluation is on group progress rather than on individual growth.

Teachers also need suggestions of ways to help pupils evaluate their individual growth. Faculty meetings should be devoted to discussing how to assist students in establishing their own goals; how to organize class work so students can collect evidence of their own progress and keep their own records; how to guide pupils in judging growth and formulating plans for future study. Intensive study should be made of tape recordings of some class and some individual pupil-teacher planning situations; work plans of individuals; pupil folders in which samples of pupil work are kept; recordings of evaluation sessions; and differences in minutes and products of work groups. By sharing the ways they meet these problems of evaluation, all the teachers become more resourceful.

Teachers will receive great assistance in helping their classes evaluate their group activities if the supervisor helps the faculty evaluate its processes.

Teachers develop a sounder basis for evaluation through visiting other classes. They learn by seeing. As teachers visit each other and have the opportunity to compare the learning situation that exists in other classes with their own, and their skills in handling various problems with the skills of others, they can make a better use of criteria in self-evaluation. Their judgments are based on more data. Visiting also gives a teacher the opportunity to make preliminary judgments about new procedures. It can help him decide whether he wants to try them.

How Should Classroom Observations Be Used?

Observation as a phase of rating is a procedure that restricts the improvement of teaching. But observation without rating can be used to improve instruction if it is a cooperative under-

been established between the supervisor and the teacher, until the teacher knows the supervisor and feels secure with him. After a basis of friendly understanding has been established, the supervisor should let the teacher know that help is available whenever the teacher wants it, and that the supervisor is on call to assist with difficulties that arise in the classroom.

One Washington teacher praised her principal for making the following statement about observation during the pre-planning conference:

I want to feel free to come and go from room to room, not with the idea of criticizing, but to establish a feeling of understanding, to know you and your pupils better, and to be more able to talk with parents if a situation arises concerning certain teaching procedures. You are to feel free to come to me if at any time I can be of help to you.

Two other types of visitation establish a satisfactory framework for cooperative analysis. The supervisor should convey his interest in projects that are being carried on in the classroom and should encourage the teacher to invite him to come and see new developments and experimental activities. Another basis for visiting the class is the planning of some joint activity that the supervisor and teacher carry on together with the teacher's class. If this approach is used, the supervisor must have time to plan with the teacher and to be in the classroom frequently while the project is under way.

When a supervisor has been invited to observe for these reasons, he appears as a visitor or a helper. In either role, he should plan to be in the classroom when the class starts and to stay in the background as much as possible. If his help is needed, it will be called for by students or by the teacher in charge. If the supervisor is merely observing, he should not interrupt class procedure or take over the class. A learning situation belongs to the class group and to the teacher. A supervisor is a visitor, and as such he should adapt himself to the class situation. When he interrupts, he interferes with the group operation and may put the teacher in a less secure posi-

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tion with the students. This is true when supervisors break in to say, "Perhaps a better way to explain that, Miss Brown . . ." or "Your information is not quite accurate. You should have stated that. . ."

The supervisor should sit where he can observe pupil reactions, because he will want to focus his attention on the interaction of children with their teacher, their fellows, and the materials of instruction that are used. He is not concerned with special mannerisms or techniques of the teacher except as they affect the children in the group. He will want to ask himself such questions as the following:

Is the classroom one in which children feel secure in their relationships with each other and with the teacher?

Do the children see purpose in what they are doing?

Are children seeking ways of carrying out their purposes or are they seeking to discover what the teacher wants done?

Is there opportunity for creative thinking and activity in the classroom?

Is cooperation encouraged?

Are children stimulated to evaluate their ways of working and to plan revision of procedures that will make their work more effective?

Are the classroom equipment and materials organized to increase the efficiency with which the group achieves its purposes?

Supervisory time should be made available to the teacher for discussion of the learning that has occurred. Such discussions should be held as soon as possible after the classroom visit and should be held in a situation where the supervisor does not have an advantage over the teacher, where the teacher feels at home and secure. They may take place in the classroom where the class session has been held or over coffee in the cafeteria. The important point is that the discussion be informal and that the teacher feels he can assume a mature, equal part. In the past, many such conferences have been held in the supervisor's office. Too often the teacher has felt that he was there to satisfy the supervisor.

position of having to debate against a stated position. The conference that results is not likely to be one in which growth on the part of either occurs. If the written report is to become a part of the teacher's permanent record, observations are placed in an entirely different category. Classroom visits become occasions on which the teacher must display his best wares. They will not be times when the teacher reveals his weaknesses and asks for suggestions. He will not want reports of his weaknesses in his permanent file. On-call observations do not function well in the situations in which the supervisor is required to make a written report.

Classroom visits are helpful to the supervisor in making recommendations for in-service activities. They enable him to know which teachers are experiencing the same difficulty and to provide a basis for suggesting the organization of study groups within the staff.

Classroom observation is one supervisory procedure. If all the other relationships and procedures in the school are the kind that contribute to real cooperation, it will assist in improving instruction and the school program.

How Can the Supervisor Help the Group Evaluate Its Procedures and Progress?

Evaluation must include the work of the group as well as the work of individuals. Throughout this book emphasis has been placed upon the major role of the group in the development of the individual teacher and the school program. Unless group activities and procedures are subjected to constant evaluation, the chances of individual improvement are greatly decreased. The supervisor must devote a large portion of his effort to helping the group improve its processes.

One of his first evaluation responsibilities is to help the group during planning sessions to devise a way of judging its progress. This cannot wait until later. He may call the group's attention to such questions as:

Have we decided upon long-term and immediate goals?

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Have we established a plan of action?

Has the responsibility of each staff member been defined?

Have we set deadlines for ourselves?

Have we agreed upon a method of coordinating our efforts?

These questions are designed to force a group to establish a plan definite enough to permit an estimate of subsequent progress. Answers to these questions may need to be revised later in terms of the group experience in carrying out the plan. As the work progresses, the supervisor will need to raise additional questions:

Are we meeting our deadlines?

Is each member fulfilling his accepted responsibilities?

Is there a need for revision of responsibilities?

Do we need to revise our time schedule?

Should our goals be revised?

But evaluation of long-term progress is not enough. Accomplishment will be increased if a plan can be devised by which each meeting of the group or of work committees can be improved.

One technique for helping a group evaluate a single meeting is the use of a process observer, whose function is to keep a record of the interaction between members of the group and to report on what he has recorded. He is an evidence-collector. He is not an evaluator. On the basis of the evidence presented, the group makes its own evaluation of its process and progress.

Guide sheets have been worked out to help process observers. Listed below are questions culled from many such forms.

General

Was the meeting slow in getting started?

Was the atmosphere easy, relaxed, and comfortable?

Was the tempo slow, hurried, or satisfactory?

Was the interest level high?

Was the purpose clear to all?

Were members cooperative?

Was information shared?

Were members sensitive to each other?

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- Were tensions brought out into the open?
- Was there evidence of feelings of superiority?
- Were ideas forced on the group?
- Was the group able to accept differences?
- Was the group able to discipline itself?
- Was any decision reached?
- Was there resistance to group decisions?

Participation

- Was participation spread throughout the group?
- Was discussion centered for a long period in one portion of the group?
- Was the discussion initiated by group members?
- Were there difficulties in communication?
- Was there a feeling of give and take?
- Were members eager to speak?
- Were certain members taking more than their share of the time?
- Were members showing aggression?
- Was the discussion limited to the topic?
- Were members assuming responsibility for the success of the meeting?
- Were members attempting to draw out each other?

Leadership

- Did the leader help the group to establish a direction?
- Did the leader give encouragement?
- Did the leader attempt to bring in non-participating members?
- Did the leader volunteer more help than was needed?
- Did the leader recognize those who wished to speak?
- Did the leader dominate the meeting?
- Did the leader manifest feelings of superiority?
- Did the leader keep things going?
- Did the leader bring the specialized skills of members to bear on the problem?
- Did the leader summarize as necessary?
- Did the leader try give answers for the group?
- Did the leader get a consensus?

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After the process observer has been called upon for his report, the group should be asked what revisions it wants to make in plans for the next meeting in light of the facts presented. It is important to stress again that a faculty member should not be placed in the position of passing value judgments on the work of his fellows. Placing him in a rating role isolates that teacher from the group.

The study of a check list for the process observer helps members of the group to become more effective participants in that group.

Some faculties choose to operate without a process observer but spend the meeting time ordinarily devoted to the observer's report to summarizing impressions about the meeting and using these data as the basis for making revisions in the process for the next meeting. *A worth-while goal for an official leader would be to help each faculty member to develop into a process observer.*

Out of the study of group dynamics have emerged the beginnings of a classification of certain types of participation in groups. Although the definitions of various roles such as coordinator, clarifier, critic, protagonist, manager, arbitrator, reality tester, group conscience, encourager, and boss are still hazy, discussion of these terms as related to the group operation serves to help members mature in their thinking about effective group process.

The supervisor promotes self-evaluation in the staff as he gets people concerned with improvement; helps them to define what they are trying to do; offers suggestions on ways of collecting data; helps them make judgments and plan improvements; and develops a desire for the practice of constant re-evaluation.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Avoid rating as a method of improving the program?

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2. Approach individual evaluation through total program evaluation?
 3. Bring all persons involved in a situation into the evaluation process?
 4. Encourage self-evaluation by teachers and their classes?
 5. Stimulate concern for the improvement of the learning situation?
 6. Have the staff form a self-evaluation check list that individual teachers can use?
 7. Encourage pupil-teacher planning as a form of teacher evaluation?
 8. Use faculty meetings to discuss evaluation techniques that individual teachers have found helpful?
 9. Establish rapport with the teacher before visiting his classroom?
 10. Seek invitations to visit?
 11. When visiting a classroom
 - enter before the class starts?
 - stay in the background unless brought into the activity by the group?
 - watch pupil reaction?
 - stay for the entire period?
 12. Keep the post-observation conference informal?
 13. Encourage the teacher to lead the analysis of the activity observed?
 14. Help the teacher form his own judgments about the teaching process.
 15. Stimulate intervisitation as a method of providing more data on which to base judgments?
 16. Raise questions during group planning that lead to the formulation of a specific goal, assignments, and deadlines to serve as bases of judgment?
 17. Spend a portion of each faculty meeting analyzing the process used and planning improvement for the next meeting?
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Chapter 14

How Can the Work of the Supervisor Be Evaluated?

Evaluation is an everyday process. Whether they realize it or not, people are constantly making evaluations. They look at a woman and say, "She is well dressed" or "Her hair is beautiful." They watch a golfer swing, and exclaim, "What marvelous form" or "He's a dub!" But these judgments are sporadic and based on meager data. A supervisor needs to make more thorough and carefully planned evaluations of himself if he is to improve.

The supervisor helps set the pattern in a school. If he wants the staff, as a group and as individuals, to evaluate its work, he must be the first to be evaluated. He must practice self-evaluation and secure group evaluation of his work.

How Can a Supervisor Evaluate Himself?

Self-evaluation is going on all the time. A man takes a furtive glance at the toes of his shoes as he goes by the bootblack. A woman takes out her compact to see whether her lipstick is still as it should be. Persons judge themselves against unstated standards.

People do not, however, take stock as frequently of the way they do their jobs. They are more inclined to let others judge them. They feel that they can tell how well they are doing if they get a satisfactory number of promotions and raises and if

the people working with them are happy and like them. Many of them will even refuse to evaluate their work when they are not pleasing their superiors or co-workers. They escape by blaming the other person for their inadequacies.

Few people do the type of work they are capable of doing. They work at less than full efficiency because they have not analyzed their position and evaluated their work in terms of the requirements.

The supervisor's need for evaluation is both personal and professional. To preserve our own self-respect, we seek ways of increasing our strengths and decreasing our weaknesses. To grow professionally and to be sure that we are doing an adequate job, we establish goals or criteria and measure our actions by them.

What are the ways we can judge our work? At least two phases should be examined constantly: How well do we manage our activities? What are the results we achieve?

Let's examine first the way we work. The following questions have significance:

1. *Do I set up a schedule of activities for each week? for each day?* Our work will control us unless we make some attempt to organize it. No one can do a hundred tasks at once, and the supervisor has that many ahead constantly. The task seems overwhelming unless we list one by one the things we are going to do and eliminate the others from our mind until the immediate task is finished. Setting up a schedule of work is a way of freeing ourselves from the burden of a work load because it enables us to carry only a portion of it at one time.

2. *Am I flexible in my schedule without becoming disturbed?* Schedules are made to be broken. They constitute the best organizational hypothesis at the start of the day. They give stability and form to the day. But they are not sacred. As the day progresses, we get more information; new situations arise that render unwise the schedule we had planned. The need for changing our schedule should not disturb us. A change is a decision that we make because we think it is best or because

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people have operated in a way we did not expect. It should carry no more emotional disturbance than any other decision we make.

3. *Do I get upset when my plans don't go through as I expected?* When we plan cooperatively, our plans are rarely the ones we brought to the situation.

We expect them to be revised as more people participate in studying and executing them. We expect that plans will be changed in the light of other people's thinking and in the light of our inaccuracy in predicting the outcomes of action. If we do get disturbed by the failure of our plans to develop exactly as we had devised them, we probably are more concerned with controlling people than we want to admit.



4. *Do I check off the things I've accomplished?* We all need a sense of achievement. Records that show the completion of tasks we have established for ourselves give this satisfaction. Failure to record the things done continues the burden. Each task finished remains a part of the mental load we must carry unless we have a way of recording its accomplishment and forgetting it.

5. *Do I get my feelings hurt?* Jennings found that the qualities of those whom others select as leaders are the ability to keep their personal feelings under control, and sensitivity to the feelings of others. When we are suspicious of others and their actions, when we spend a large portion of our time trying to guess the hidden motives that underlie the actions of others, when we view actions of others as threats to ourselves, we are displaying our insecurity. To exert leadership we must be the type of person in whom others can place confidence. If we are insecure, afraid, or suspicious, we decrease the strength of the

group of which we are a part rather than supply assistance, support, and hope for others.

6. *Am I able to take criticism?* This criterion is related to the preceding one. A weak, insecure person is threatened by criticism. Instead of using criticism as information that helps him grow, he tries to avoid it and fights against those who offer it.

Some persons are able to take criticism from their superiors but not from individuals they consider to have less rank or importance. Two factors may account for this condition. The first is their expectations. Their stereotype of a superior may be a person who tells them what to do, how to do it, and how well it has been done. When criticism comes from a superior, it is the expected thing and not a threat. The person with less status, on the other hand, may be stereotyped as an individual who takes orders and is in no position to criticize. Second, we may have feelings of superiority toward persons of less status. We

may believe that we hold our present position because of superior intelligence and ability. Either of these feelings deprive us of access to the intelligence of a large percentage of those with whom we work and of the opportunity to provide real leadership for them.



7. *Am I able to put myself in the other person's position?* In supervision we work through the efforts of others. We succeed as they succeed and fail as they fail. To be effective necessitates that we experience empathy with

others. We need to be able to see the way in which difficulties, purposes, surprises, actions, and assets look to others. As we approximate their feelings about the events of the day, we are able to plan and work with them. We understand actions and

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work in terms of our insight. If we aren't able to put ourselves in the other person's shoes, our actions may be a constant threat to others without our knowing it.

8. *Am I making a sincere effort to learn more about the staff?* Much of our success in placing ourselves in the other person's position depends upon knowing a lot about him. If we don't want to know about our colleague, we probably don't have much empathy for him. It is difficult for us to understand his reaction to the lack of a salary increase if we do not know that he has five children and a mother and father whom he helps support. If we aren't taking the steps that are feasible to learn how we can help the people around us, our human relations leave something to be desired.

9. *Do I consult those who will be affected by an action before I take it?* Action that is taken without consultation is frequently misunderstood. If we want to be sure that those who will be affected by a step that we take will accept it, we need to provide an opportunity for them to have it explained and for them to react to the proposal. By telling us how they feel about it, they suggest revisions that we should make in the proposed procedure. Furthermore, individuals who will be affected will have a greater sense of commitment to the change because they have had a chance to express their opinion about it and to propose revisions that would make it more acceptable to them. Even though we are not able to adapt the action to the interests of all, we know the risk we run and are in a better position to make a decision on whether the gamble is a good one.

10. *Do I live up to commitments?* If we want people to have faith in us, it is necessary for them to be able to rely on our word. When a decision has been reached in a group of which we are a part, staff members have a right to expect that the commitment will be honored. If we spend staff time reaching a decision and then do not put into action the agreements reached, we breed disillusionment and dissatisfaction. We put people in a position where they are forced to conclude that our way of work is "talk democracy" rather than "do democracy."

Supervision as Skill in Evolution

In one teacher-training institution there was a very elaborate system of committees. Each staff member participated in a committee of his choice. Committees prepared drafts of policy and substituted them to the total faculty. At the regular faculty meeting the entire staff accepted or rejected these proposals. The ones accepted were looked upon by staff members as policy, but the dean of the institution did not always take the necessary steps to implement the policy decided upon by the faculty. After a time, the staff came to the conclusion that participation in policy formation and program development was mere busy work and lost interest in the activity. This dean was very scrupulous in living up to person-to-person agreements, but he did not see the far-reaching implications of failing to implement group decisions in which he participated.

Now let's turn to ways of evaluating what we accomplish. These are important questions in judging the effectiveness of a supervisor.

The measure of our success lies in the change we are able to effect. Unless severe social upheaval is placing undue strain on the school, our contribution should be evaluated in terms of the increased curriculum improvement activities in the school.

1. *How many more teachers are experimenting?* Teachers grow as they try new procedures and measure the results. If we are effective, teachers are trying more new things than they were a year ago. If we are not effective, more teachers will have discontinued their search for better ways of teaching and will be following lesson plans and procedures that they developed last year or several years before.

2. *How much more action research is under way?* As we look around us in the schools in which we work, do we find more faculty groups attempting to develop better procedures of evaluation, seeking to improve the living in the community, searching for better ways



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of meeting the emotional needs of youngsters? Do we see these faculties seriously attempting to measure the results of their innovations rather than carrying out hunches without any attempt to collect evidence concerning the results? If our work has been effective, more and more teachers are basing decisions on the scientific approach. A greater number of teachers spend time seeking evidence and basing conclusions on it today than were following this practice last year.

3. *How many more parents are involved in the school?* Teachers alone cannot improve the school. Adults of the community are needed in planning and to serve as resource persons for classes and activity groups. In schools without an adequate staff, they may assist with the service functions of the school. If we have been effective in increasing the vision of the staff concerning the contribution of community members to education and in our community relations, more parents will be involved in school activities.

4. *How many more rooms are more attractive?* If pupils and teachers are to spend six hours a day in a room, it should be attractive—a place in which a person likes to be. Recognition is spreading that barren, empty, harsh classrooms do not stimulate the kind of learning the teacher desires. How many more rooms have color, pictures, drapes, displays, and other devices that teachers and pupils have used to give them personality and to make them reflect and support the quality of living that is sought?

5. *How many more teachers are reading professional books?* Although reading professional books is not an end in itself, the number of teachers who are interested enough to sample what is being published in their field is an index to the extent of professional alertness in the staff. Do we have more new professional books available? Has the circulation



increased? Do we hear more teachers telling other teachers about books and recommending them? Is a greater proportion of the staff searching for suggestions on ways to improve their work?

6. *How many more teachers are active in professional organizations?* Although activity in a professional organization does not guarantee classroom competency, participation in local, state, and national organizations is another indication of the professional spirit of the staff. Our behavior and the attitudes we express should enhance the desire of teachers to exert leadership in improving education through professional organizations.

7. *How many more teachers are seeking in-service experience?* Some school systems require that staff members take alertness courses every few years, as a minimum insurance of curriculum improvement. Teachers should be looking for opportunities to improve. Have we made available the type of workshops and resource people that the teachers consider helpful? Have staff members met and come to us with a request that we provide a seminar or workshop on some problem facing them? When we announce a volunteer workshop or meeting, does a greater percentage of the staff attend? Are more teachers who are not required to do so for certification or salary-increase purposes attending summer school?

8. *How many more teachers are planning with other teachers?* Teachers grow through interaction. As much teacher growth occurs through teachers' planning with other teachers as through organized in-service programs. When teachers recognize the value of sharing experiences and materials, the faculty moves toward a common point of view with regard to learning and curriculum. Do we develop times during the work week when teachers have the opportunity to plan together? Teachers of



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one grade level may meet together. Teachers who are working on the same type of class at the secondary level may meet together. Teachers who recognize a common problem in methods of reporting to parents may meet together. If our work is effective, more teachers will find value in this joint planning.

9. *How many more pupils are being included in planning and evaluating?* The learning situation improves as the people involved in it have an opportunity to make their purposes clear and to make judgments about the success of their activities. We improve the learning situation as we assist teachers to gain the security and the techniques that make it possible for them to utilize the intelligence of pupils in making judgments about what is to happen and what has happened. One of the barometers by which to judge our own productivity is the extent to which increased pupil-teacher planning is occurring.

10. *Is a larger percentage of the staff assuming responsibility for the improvement of the program?* Through our individual efforts we are able to effect changes in the curriculum, but individual shouldering of responsibility is not enough. If we are the only one deeply concerned with providing a better program, we give our whole life and bring about very little change. It is only as we work in such a way that more and more people begin to desire change and to assume responsibility for making it that a supervisory program has any impact on a school system.

11. *Are staff meetings becoming more faculty-directed?* If staff meetings remain the exclusive property of the administrators, changes of lasting significance are unlikely. If the administrator invites staff members to assume responsibility and no teacher leadership emerges, nothing happens except an increase in the dissatisfaction of the staff. When our work procedures are effective, the faculty gives more and more attention to the planning of meetings and to the use of meetings to make decisions concerning school policy. If only 25 per cent of the staff is interested in making decisions concerning policy, it is difficult to make a judgment about the quality of the supervi-

sion. If next year only the same 25 per cent is interested in making decisions, it is apparent that the supervisory procedures being followed are not the kind that increase the staff's self-direction. If we are doing our job effectively, staff members become increasingly able to conduct their own meetings and to decide on policy—whether we are there or not. The staff becomes as concerned with knowing limitations and possibilities as we are and in making judgments concerning the next best steps in the situation. If we have planned with staff members, they know the purposes and objectives as well as we do and are guided as closely by them.

12. *How many more teachers are using a wider range of materials?* A good learning situation is one that makes it possible for pupils to find materials and media through which they can learn better. In order to care for differences in reading ability, the books available must cover reading levels of a number of grades. To make it possible for many youngsters to express themselves easily, the classroom should contain art materials and other media through which they may express how they feel about the experiences they have been having. If our supervision has been effective, the teaching staff has sought to increase its acquaintance with and skill in using a variety of media. We find in classrooms more teachers making available to youngsters different ways of learning and sharing.

13. *How are students scoring on achievement tests?* The end result of all our efforts is to increase the learning of children. Under ordinary circumstances, pupil achievement should be higher each year as the result of our efforts. However, it is important to consider the external factors that bear on the school situation before we make any judgments about the present achievement of youngsters. The nature of the community may have changed, and the intellectual environment of the homes may have become lower or higher. Decreased funds for schools may have deprived youngsters of instructional materials and lowered the teacher morale so that less learning for pupils results. However, if the situation has remained ap-

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proximately the same, and if our efforts have been successful, the achievement level of pupils will have been raised.

How Can the Group Assist in the Evaluation of the Official Leader?

Self-evaluation by the official leader is not enough. He must obtain the judgments of others in determining the revisions he will make in his procedures.

The preceding chapter describes the way in which a supervisor's work as a discussion leader can be evaluated by the group. His function in the meeting is analyzed by the group as a means of determining the way group process can be improved.

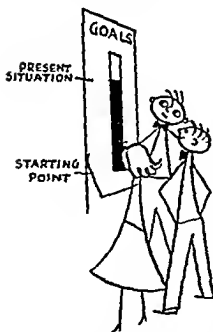
The guiding principle involved in the evaluation of a discussion leader is basic here too. *The official leader's work should be evaluated as a part of the judgments concerning the total group effort.* He is working within the group. His function is to contribute to the group's accomplishment of its goals. The only phase of the supervisor's work that can be regarded as separate from the work of the other group members consists of helping the group become more effective in working for its purposes. Acceptance of this principle keeps the faculty from stating that the official leader is strong or weak. Rather, faculty members say, "We have achieved these goals but failed to reach those. Our official leader has been very helpful on certain points and would strengthen us if he would put more emphasis on these other activities during the next few months."

If goals have been established, the only way to judge the success of the group and the supervisor is by the amount of progress made toward the goals. The goals of the school are the criteria against which the work of the official leader must ultimately be judged. If no progress has been made, the supervisor is failing, even though he has built morale and has increased job satisfaction. *Maintaining the status quo in a school program is failure unless it is being maintained in the face of constantly increasing difficulties.*

Supervision as Skill in Evaluation

In order to determine progress, it is necessary to know where the group starts. Some base line must be established. The program of the school must be accurately recorded so that the group will be able to determine exactly the amount of change that has taken place. The date at which the new supervisor entered the situation may be used as the starting point. Or the beginning of the school year may be used, or the time at which the *evaluative criteria* are applied to the school program. The starting point chosen doesn't matter if it is recent enough to permit detection of change that is occurring under the impact of present activity, but some complete picture of existing conditions at the base-line date is essential.

As a group evaluates its work and that of its official leader, it



is necessary to determine the amount of change that has been produced in the direction of the group goals since the base line was established. How does the school program *now* differ from the school program at the *previous date*?

When the types and amount of change have been determined, the group is ready to make judgments. If no change has occurred, the judgment is obvious. If some change has been effected, the group must decide whether that progress is satisfactory in light of existing conditions. At this point the judgment becomes subjective.

Everyone involved in the situation—supervisors, teachers, parents, pupils, community groups—should be a part of the judgment process. The amount of change can be determined by individuals—a teacher, the principal, or an outside group—but the judgments about the amount of progress must be made

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by all concerned. Whether or not the supervisor desires this condition, it will occur. The skillful official leader devises situations for obtaining these judgments and uses them in improving the school program. The unskillful official leader will pretend that he can ignore them and find that he has missed an opportunity to build the group spirit and a solid backing for the program. He will wonder why opposition is developing in those whose judgments were not obtained and used.

The judgments that name areas of less than satisfactory progress will indicate the points where analysis and revision are needed, either in the work of the supervisor or of others in the group.

In the opinion of the writer, the specific criteria by which a program and the official leader are judged fall into four categories:

1. More responsible participation of students, teachers, and community members in the improvement of the program.
2. Enrichment of the school program through an increase in opportunities and activities for all.
3. More efficient learning situations that result in more rapid pupil growth.
4. Greater contribution of the school to the improvement of community living.

To bring about evaluation of the type described, official leadership must devise means of assisting groups to collect and examine data and to make judgments about them. One way is to collect the data and present them to a discussion group in such a striking form that all can see the progress that has been made. However, this procedure may lead some members of the group to question the interpretation. The official leader is in a much more secure position if people who make judgments also participate in the collection of the data that indicate progress, or the lack of it, toward the goals the group established. A form developed by the Florida State Department of Education for group use in local schools in Florida is presented in Appendix C. It satisfies all the requirements of evaluation theory: the

criteria are goals established for their school by Florida communities; a base line has been established; space is provided for recording evidence of progress and making a judgment concerning it; provision is made for listing next steps agreed upon in light of the judgments concerning progress.

In summary, evaluation of official leadership must be an evaluation of program development, with specific attention devoted to the procedures by which more group potential for progress can be released.

SELF-EVALUATION CHECK LIST

Do I:

1. Set up a schedule of activities for each week?
2. Make changes easily?
3. Use criticism to improve my procedures?
4. Get more teachers to experiment?
5. Stimulate action research?
6. Get parents involved in the work of the school?
7. Secure an increase in the reading of professional books and participation in professional organizations?
8. Succeed in increasing the amount of cooperative planning?
9. Get teachers to be more self-directing?
10. Increase the use of a wider variety of instructional materials?
11. Promote increased pupil achievement?
12. Obtain a full description of the school's program on a given date to serve as a base line in determining the amount of progress that is being made in program development?
13. Bring teachers, pupils, parents, and community members into the judgments concerning the progress that has been made?
14. Encourage revision of goals, or procedures in areas in which the group decides progress is unsatisfactory?

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15. Judge my success by the progress of the school program toward goals accepted by the group?

For Further Exploration

The philosophy and procedures of evaluation are gradually being evolved. F. C. Ayer in *Fundamentals of Instructional Supervision* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), Chapter 22, outlines the development of the evaluation theory and gives some suggestions for evaluating a supervisor's work. In Chapter 10 of *Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1953), Boardman, Douglass, and Bent survey devices that have been used to measure teaching effectiveness and the evidence of their validity. Chapter 21 reviews principles of evaluation and applies them to the evaluation of the supervisor. Frank Dickey and Harold Adams, *Basic Principles of Supervision* (New York: American Book Company, 1953), Chapter 12 and Appendices A and B, present a supervisor's self-evaluation check list and standards for evaluating a program. Harold Shane and W. A. Yauch, in Chapter 5 of *Creative School Leadership* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1954), stress evaluation as a process of change.

Supervision in the Future



We want a working situation:

—where each can feel right about himself and others.

—where there is deep concern for the welfare and feelings of each individual.

—where each feels that he belongs.

—where people trust each other.

—where the administration shares the decisions within its authority.

—where all who will be vitally affected by policy participate in its formation.

—where each can maintain his integrity.

—where increased self-direction rather than greater dependence is sought.

—where a sense of direction is obtained by participation in formation of goals.

—where there is free flow of ideas.

—where ideas are considered the property of the group and are used by it.

—where loyalty is to ideas and values and not to persons.

—where teachers speak out and the administration capitalizes on ideas.

—where consensus rather than majority vote is sought.

—where teachers and administrators tell each other frankly what they expect of each other and the help they want from each other.

—where the staff accepts responsibility for decisions made and is willing to live with the consequences.

Chapter 15

What Is Ahead In Supervision?

This entire book has been an attempt to state the implications of present research in the fields of learning, group dynamics, psychiatry, group therapy, social psychology, human relations, and communication for the way in which supervisors should seek to fulfill their function. This concluding chapter will sketch some of the mistakes we have been making in supervision, the working environment for which we are striving, and the research that is needed.

What Assumptions Have Caused Supervisors Difficulty?

Persons in positions of official leadership have found themselves in difficulty in the past because they have operated on the basis of false assumptions about the nature of human beings, human groups, communication, and learning. Let's examine some of these trouble-causing assumptions.

1. *Appointment to a status position gives us leadership.* A principal in a midwestern city was appointed to the position of assistant superintendent in charge of instruction. In one of his first meetings with a large group of teachers he began to tell them what he wanted them to do. Several teachers raised objections. The man lost his temper and told the group in angry words that he was the assistant superintendent and they would do what he said.

This man assumed that the teachers should and would fol-

low him because of his appointment. He did not realize that leadership is earned and does not come automatically with the title. Two years later, the superintendent replaced him.

2. *Communication follows organization chart.* An organization chart is a picture of someone's wishes. It may be drawn to

coincide with the flow of communication, but it does not always reflect the true organization or flow of communication. Unless supervisors recognize that decisions are made in informal situations, and unless they seek to discover the real channels of communication, chances are they will be ineffective.

3. *Loyalty is to persons rather than ideas.* Many official leaders become unhappy and begin to distrust the members of the staff because they make this assumption.

They become insecure because they cannot understand how persons who are their friends, persons they have helped, persons who have stood shoulder to shoulder with them in previous battles, do not support them in the present situation. They feel that their colleagues are being treacherous and guilty of disloyalty when actually they are being moral and are living up to their values. A concept of loyalty which requires that a person must agree with the official leader and support him on all issues weakens the leader's self-confidence and leads to disruption of the group.

4. *Staff members should adjust to the official leader.* When a supervisor assumes that he can be moody, nagging, and inconsiderate and that others must still work with him, the rocks of failure are immediately ahead. He may retain his position, but he will lose his leadership. Leadership is bestowed by a group upon an individual who is sensitive to the feelings of its members.



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5. *Feelings are not important.* It is easy to say that staff members should be adult and not become disturbed over an action. But saying what should be does not make it true. The way a staff member feels about an action of the supervisor is more important than the action itself. If a teacher interprets an action as a reprimand or a recrimination, his future behavior is governed by his interpretation, not by the leader's intention.

Unless a supervisor attempts constantly to place himself in the other person's position and to see how actions look from there, his leadership is in jeopardy.

6. *Administration is decision-making.* A principal from an eastern state objected vigorously to the idea of sharing decisions. He said, "My job is making decisions. If you take that function away, I have no function." His point of view is one that is held by many.

The concept of "power over" has been a part of human culture for many years. It is only as we begin to discover that sharing decisions is a more effective way to release the power of a group that we see a different function for the leader. Conceiving of the leader's role as that of decision-maker is only possible in situations where teachers are willing to surrender their professional judgment. Cornell's study indicates that the better teachers are unwilling to do this.

7. *The status quo can be maintained.* When we try to keep the program as it is, we attempt the impossible. People change day by day and the program continues to be dynamic. When leaders fail to recognize this fact and do not plan for growth, they are left with the choice of either repressing change or withdrawing from active leadership. Leadership inevitably emerges, and leadership has a positive program. It works for change whether that change is a return to the past or a development of something new.

8. *People can be told what their problems are.* A high-school principal wanted his staff to work on the student-activity problem. The teachers felt they would profit more by studying techniques of pupil-teacher planning. For four days of a pre-

school planning conference, the struggle continued. At last the principal capitulated.

Even if he had won, the work would not have been productive. People must believe there is a real problem before they are willing to give their full energy to a project. When we attempt to tell people what the problems are on which they should work, they resist. We succeed only if we describe a problem the group already feels.

10. *People grow by being told.* When teachers were asked where they secured the new ideas they put into practice, they placed the suggestions of supervisors twenty-seventh on the list. This discouraging condition is not the result of lack of ideas among supervisors. It is a reflection of how we learn. Teachers learn when they are ready. When they want help on a problem and when they discover a solution by reading or by talking with someone of their choosing, they learn.

11. *People can be forced to be democratic.* Unless a staff wants to participate in policy formation, going through the process is fruitless. We cannot achieve democracy in a staff by autocratic means. Frequently a staff rebels and accuses the official leader of asking it to do his work and to assume his responsibility. Securing staff participation is a gradual process in which the official leader continues to offer to share the decisions he has the authority to make.

12. *Actions between an official leader and a staff member are individual.* A Texas principal spent many hours in attempting to help a beginning teacher become a successful one. Because the teacher was an attractive girl and the principal was a man, other teachers began to talk. Although this supervisor was making a professional effort to help an individual teacher, it affected the work of the entire school adversely.

The assumptions listed above conflict with the implications of existing research. They constitute stumbling blocks to official leaders who continue to accept them. More and more supervisors are abandoning them.

What Working Conditions Are We Seeking?

The direction supervision will take in the future depends upon the type of working situation we want. Actions are attempts to realize ideals and visions. Thus any attempt to state the future of supervision must involve an effort to define the staff relationships that are deemed desirable.

Assistance in the development of more effective learning situations for girls and boys is the primary function of the supervisor. But a direct attack *does not produce the results desired*. Unless a teacher feels right about himself, about his job, about his fellow staff members, and about his supervisor, he is not ready to consider his teaching processes.

What are the qualities of a school situation in which a supervisor can hope to improve instruction?

1. *Each member values himself and others*. When an individual dislikes himself or feels inadequate, he attempts to hurt himself or to find solace in proving himself superior to others. Either type of action decreases the power of a group. The productiveness of a staff is increased when its members take steps that enhance the individual's sense of worth by recognizing contributions and supporting each other.

2. *A deep concern for the welfare and feeling of each individual exists*. A superintendent in a western school system faced a problem that was serious enough to cost him his job. As he sat in his office trying to decide what to do, he put his head in his hands for fully five minutes. An observer might have guessed that he was worrying about losing his position. When he raised his head, his questions were: What will this do to John? How will Sally feel about this action? His constant concern was how the individuals involved would feel. The success of any solution was to be measured in terms of people's emotions as well as other factors.

Such concern for the feeling and welfare of each individual has its effect on the group. In such a situation, teachers feel more secure and are more concerned with the feelings of

their students and the improvement of the school program.

3. *Each member of the staff feels that he belongs to the group.* When an individual does not feel that the other members of the group accept him or want to be associated with him, the chances are great that he will not be able to make much of a contribution to the school. He will be so involved in discovering the way to become accepted that he will not be able to concentrate on staff projects or on improving the quality of his work. Or he may reverse the procedure. He may be so full of resentment at being excluded that he will engage in harmful and aggressive activity toward the group members. The supervisor will want to do the things that help each person feel "free to come and safe to go." He will strive to help each staff member to feel that he may enter any informal group without a sense of intruding, and that he may leave without fear that he will be talked about in a derogatory manner.

4. *People trust each other.* When there is no trust, individuals must be on the defensive and more concerned about protecting themselves and their status than with seeking more effective ways of doing the work or of becoming more productive.

Trust is the foundation stone of communication. Unless we trust the other person, we resist his ideas and refuse to share our deep convictions. Until trust is established, the persons in the situation will deal with superficial topics or attempt to outmaneuver the others.

Trust cannot be achieved by the official leader's stating that he wants to be trusted. Trust is something that is earned, and each action of the individual affects it. It is a two-way street. If we hope to see it prevail in the staff with which we work, we must be the first to demonstrate it.

The way in which the official leader works with group members demonstrates his faith or his lack of faith; it determines whether group members will trust him or trust each other. One of the best tests we can apply to our own actions is to ask this question: Does the step that we are about to take make future

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working together possible? Will the action increase the possibility of honest communication? If an action fails to meet these tests, it probably is not a good supervisory procedure.

5. *The administration shares the decisions within its authority.* The simple process of sharing decisions is the most powerful tool a leader has. It is the key to the securing of leadership, the assumption of responsibility, the acceptance of assignment, and the development of high morale.

Any decision within the authority of the official leader may be shared, but care should be exercised to distinguish between those decisions that the official leader can make and those that are made by a higher authority, such as the board of education. Failure to make the boundaries of authority clear may cause frustration and may lead the group to reject further participation in decision-making.

If there are certain decisions within the authority of the official leader that he wishes to retain for himself, he should make these clear to the staff with which he works. Such action will be more acceptable than pretending to share all decisions and then vetoing decisions in areas in which the leader feels the staff to be incompetent.

6. *All who will be vitally affected by a policy participate in its formation.* When the official leader makes it possible for staff members to participate in making decisions, he increases their assumption of responsibility, which in turn promotes better performance of the tasks at hand. When people share in a decision, they are concerned about its outcome.

7. *Each person can maintain his integrity.* Permissiveness is the foundation of self-respect. Unless each person is free to express his disagreement, the situation is one in which he cannot behave morally; he cannot work in terms of the values he holds. A person who must forfeit his integrity to hold his job cannot value himself or those who force him to debase himself. Growth and increased contributions come only when individuals value both themselves and their colleagues.

8. *Increased self-direction by each staff member is sought.*

Although it seems contradictory, a group grows in strength as its members become increasingly self-directing. As staff members define together what they hope to accomplish and plan the procedures by which these goals will be achieved, each individual becomes better able to make valid decisions. As he has access to more information and as he becomes more familiar with the thinking of the group, he develops the security that enables him to make judgments without turning to someone else. Confusion and indecision are eliminated.

9. *Individuals gain a sense of direction by participating in establishing group goals.* An individual may obtain a sense of direction either by being told or by participating in forming the goals. When he is told, he may misunderstand or resist the goals that are set for him. If he participates, he understands the goals because he has helped establish them, and he expends more effort to obtain them because he is sure of their worth.

10. *Information is available to all.* A staff cannot be expected to make wise decisions if it does not have access to relevant information. Inaccessibility of information, caused by the administration's refusal to share it or by clogged channels of communication, may cause the group to make a poor decision. And a poor decision results in loss of faith in its own ability or in its leadership.

Because of the official leader's position, bulletins and other documents come to him. He attends meetings in which information is shared by the administration. It is difficult for him to know which information to share. He does not want to bore staff members with unnecessary and unimportant details. He wants to keep them as free and as unburdened with unnecessary information as he can. But screening is dangerous. Sometimes the information he considers unimportant will be very important to certain members of the staff. The safest procedure is to make available to all the information the official leader possesses.

11. *Ideas are considered the property of the group.* When ideas are identified with people, decisions are too often made

are examined. If all members of the faculty believe the same thing, progress is unlikely, because of the complacency that the uniformity of ideas develops. If morale and a sense of groupness have been developed to the point where the staff feels that it belongs together, disagreement is not dangerous; it will not destroy the group; it is a source of creativeness.

14. *Decision by consensus is sought.* A decision leads to action when the group members are convinced of its value. If only a majority is in favor of the proposed course of action, the full power of the group will not be back of it. Decision by majority is only second-best. When time and the skill of the group permit, achieving consensus insures the group's total commitment to the enterprise.

15. *Teachers and administrators have the opportunity to tell each other frankly what they expect of each other and the help they would like to receive from each other.* In Tulsa, Oklahoma, a principal's conference is held each August. At one conference, each principal brought one member of his teaching staff. Small groups of teachers and principals were formed, with no teacher in the same group with his principal. For the major portion of the week, the members of each small group considered what they expected and the help they wanted. New understandings, more common perception of roles, and more satisfying ways of working resulted.

16. *The staff accepts responsibility for decisions made and is willing to live with the consequences.* Participation in decision-making has little meaning if it is divorced from the responsibility of living up to decisions. If it is not expected that all will be bound by the decision, behavior will be irresponsible. Every staff member should expect that the official leader will hold himself and every member of the group accountable for fulfilling the obligation imposed by the decision reached.

In light of present knowledge, the conditions listed above make possible the greatest productivity of a staff and should be the basic goals of a supervisor.

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When a teacher has assurance of his own worth and the importance of his job, a sense of belonging to the group, and a trust in the official leadership, he is ready to attempt to improve instruction. The official leader can assist in improving the teaching-learning situation in many ways, such as:

- seeking agreement on purposes.
- making provision for sharing of ideas.
- stimulating and assisting the staff to prepare self-evaluation check lists.
- keeping all teachers well supplied with up-to-date materials.
- asking as frequently for proof of why a new method should not be tried as for reasons why it should.
- encouraging teachers to develop distinctive classrooms that reflect the work and activities of their classes.
- recognizing persons who are trying new procedures.
- establishing a petty-cash fund for the purchase of expandable materials.
- providing in-service training experience in self-expression in a variety of media.
- helping teachers develop techniques for evaluating a variety of types of pupil growth.
- organizing staff meetings around the study of teacher problems and the improvement of the school program.
- using workshops as a procedure for program change.
- assisting with the experimentation that grows out of a workshop.
- encouraging pupil-teacher planning.
- encouraging teachers to meet and plan the curriculum with parents.
- eliminating rating as a method of improving the program.
- encouraging self-evaluation of teachers and their classes.
- using faculty meetings to discuss evaluation techniques that individual teachers have found helpful.
- stimulating intervisitation as a method of providing more data on which to base judgments.

What Research Is Needed?

Official leadership must constantly seek better ways of releasing the potential leadership in the community, the student body, and the staff. This is not an easy task. For centuries, leaders have been facing the questions discussed in the preceding pages. They will continue to face them. New answers will emerge from experience, experimentation, and research.

Many questions still remain unanswered in the field of supervision. Until research is conducted to secure more data, we will be forced to continue to operate on many unsupported hypotheses. Let's examine some of the areas in which help is needed.



It has been popular to assume that there are three general types of leadership — authoritarian, *laissez-faire*, and democratic. There have been some experiments that seem to indicate that leadership can be so classified, but there is no conclusive research that gives justification for the belief that within the same individual there is a consistency of pattern. Is there a pattern that is consistent in an individual? If so, what is the nature of that pattern? Is the continuum along which

a person's behavior ranges one of authoritarianism versus democracy; is it one of kindness versus ruthlessness; is it one of self-seeking versus sharing? Is the way an official leader works based on any set of values, or is it related to the disposition of the individual? Does the official leader behave differently with different types of persons? For example, does the supervisor behave in one way toward teachers, in another way toward pupils, and in still a third way toward parents?

In addition to exploring the patterns of behavior followed by official leaders, we need more evidence concerning the effect of those patterns upon the over-all situation. Is the role of the status leader as important as it has been assumed to be? For

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example, do the actions of the official leader determine the quality of human relations that exist in a faculty, or are they only a minor aspect of the situation for most faculty members? Does the way that an official leader behaves affect the degree to which pupils accept each other in the school? Is the quality of pupil-to-pupil relations in the school significantly conditioned by the principal's feelings about himself and his ways of working with teachers? Is there a relationship between the official leader's way of working and the quality of the school-community relations? Can teachers cancel out unfavorable feelings and actions on the part of the official leader and create good relations between school and community?

What is the relationship between pupil achievement in a school and the way a principal operates? Must an official leader be authoritarian and have a tightly managed school if pupils are to make growth of the type measured by present achievement tests? Is there a difference in the type of growth that is associated with the various patterns of leadership that we find in schools?

To date, our inferences concerning the effect of various patterns of leadership have been based on the assumption that certain consistent patterns of leadership exist and on scanty research concerning the productiveness of groups in which various leadership actions have been taken.

Advancement of our knowledge of effective ways to supervise must go deeper than evaluating various techniques and processes. A particular technique that works in one situation may have little meaning in another situation; a symbol or action that is viewed as constructive in one school may have another implication and be regarded differently by another faculty. We need further research in the areas of emotional needs, human relations, group work, communication, and self-acceptance by the official leader.

In the area of emotional needs, we need more information about the kind and degree of personal security that official leaders need. Do they need to be confident about their social

skills? Should their personal security be the kind that is based upon having the support and affection of a family, a husband or wife? Can someone who is concerned about making rapid advancement in the educational profession be an effective supervisor, or must a person be relatively content with his present status in order to supervise effectively? Must a supervisor be very sure about his own skill as a teacher, or does great assurance about his own skill cause him to lack empathy for the teacher who is having difficulty and make communication with that teacher difficult?

To what extent is the teacher's growth connected with the supervisor's attempts to help the teacher satisfy emotional needs? Will growth occur if the emotional needs of a teacher are met? How much of the supervisor's role can be performed by listening and by taking supporting action? Do faith in the teacher's potential and the willingness to furnish support and strength when they are needed enable the supervisor to do the things that he needs to do? Or is it essential at times to increase the teacher's insecurity in order to promote growth?

In the area of human relations, is it possible for a supervisor to be too willing to accept others, or is the strength of a supervisor his tendency to value other people highly?

How can a supervisor help teachers to value those who are different? How can a supervisor help teachers to perceive other teachers in a different manner? Does the supervisor's habit of valuing all people promote acceptance of one another among teachers?

How great a diversity should there be in a staff? Does too great a difference within a group threaten members to the extent that creativity is stifled rather than fostered?

Many questions remain unanswered in the field of group work. Is the official leader's treatment of other members the deciding factor in determining the quality of work and the quality of human relations in a school? What can he do to bring about change in the group norms? How far can he go beyond the group norms before his leadership is rejected by the staff?

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What can he do to reduce the likelihood of being rejected?

What kind and degree of structure is desirable in a staff?

How much of the structure should be determined by the official leader and how much evolved by the staff?

How can a person who has a power position, such as a supervisor, avoid being regarded as a threat by other group members? Can an official leader ever avoid threatening those whose ideas differ with his?

Communication problems haunt supervisors: What types of communication affect teachers' behavior? How much of the communication in a group is verbal or written? What communication changes values? What are the things that can be done to help staff members obtain more common meanings for words and other symbols that are used in attempting to communicate? Does most of the significant communication take place outside official meetings?

Investigation is needed of the ways in which an individual can develop the kind of self-perception that is associated with effective leadership. What can we do to avoid assuming that we have a monopoly on virtue and that people who disagree with us are wrong? What can we do to avoid the temptation of attempting to create others in our own image? How can we avoid associating failure with our inability to get people to do what we deem desirable and success with securing the agreement of others to go along with what we want done?

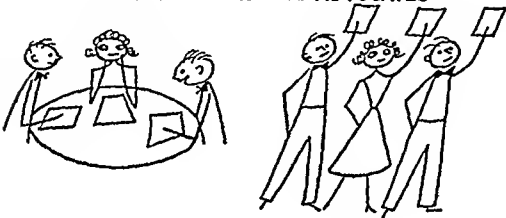
The future of supervision rests on our success in securing accurate answers to questions such as these. Anyone working in the field of supervision or entering it should recognize how scanty the evidence is, and should be committed to an endless search for data that will enable us to test more fully the hypotheses on which supervisory actions are based.

Any attempt to exert leadership in program improvement must be a creative activity. There is no one pattern to which an individual may conform with security. Consistently ineffective actions have been identified and should be avoided. But the new procedures that have emerged from past failures

are only better ways for official leadership to operate. More insight and more certainty concerning the results obtained by newer procedures must be secured by formal and informal investigations.

Until better answers are determined, however, the way to better schools seems to be in the decision of the official leadership to work within the group and the development of practices that implement that commitment.

SHARED DECISIONS • CO-ADVOCATES



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Appendix A

Selected Significant Research

A.V.A. Home Economics Research Committee. *Factors Affecting the Satisfaction of Home Economics Teachers*. Research Bulletin No. 3. Washington, D.C.: American Vocational Association, 1948.

In March 1947, 971 secondary-school home economics teachers, a nation-wide sampling, were asked to give their reactions to questions about their jobs, community conditions, living conditions, family and marriage, salaries, profession, school conditions, and teaching loads.

The following conclusions reached are pertinent for supervisors:

(1) There was somewhat greater professional satisfaction among teachers who taught both junior and senior high-school students than among teachers who taught at one of these levels only or who taught adults and high-school students. (2) Professional satisfaction was independent of length of teaching experience. (3) Satisfied teachers tended to say the kind of school in which they taught was more important than most other things in teaching. (4) Teachers were more satisfied when equipment was adequate, when plans for improving the program were being made or carried out, when there was an adequate, definite amount of money set aside for operating expenses, when loads were light enough for them to do effective teaching and still have time for outside activities, when they had the assistance of the administrator and the supervisor. (5) Teachers who expected to return the following year were more satisfied than those who were uncertain or were not expecting to teach. (6) Aspects of a community satisfying to teachers were a pleasant social life, being accepted, and a cooperative attitude toward teachers. (7) Married teachers were better satisfied with their jobs than were single teachers.

Cornell, Francis. "When Should Teachers Share in Making Administrative Decisions," *The Nation's Schools*, 53 (May 1954), pp. 43-45.

Cornell and his students examined teacher participation in making administrative decisions in four "about average" school systems in Illinois: They found: (1) the more "sociable" and more emotionally stable teachers tend to participate more in policy formation, (2) teachers most adversely affected by lack of opportunity to participate are those who are above average in professional attitude as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, (3) teacher satisfaction with relationship to administrative decision-making is correlated with classroom performance. The schools rated highest in quality of classroom activity were those whose teachers rated highest on the morale factor.

Cornell concludes, "It is not so much what a teacher actually does in sharing with the administration in the formation of policy, but: (1) the extent to which he expects he would be invited to share, (2) the extent to which he believes that the administration takes his invitation seriously enough to make it official (gives responsibility), and (3) the extent that the administrator values the teacher participation enough that it bears influence on the final decision."

DeHuzar, George B., *Practice Applications of Democracy*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945.

Analysis of many situations leads the author to the conclusion that a problem-centered discussion group is an effective procedure for helping individuals and groups solve problems. A typical example presented is the attempt of a manager of a department to improve a truck used in the work of the department. He called the five operators of the truck to his office, one at a time, and asked for suggestions. The employees were shy and reticent but did suggest *five* ways to improve the truck. Still dissatisfied, the manager decided to try the problem-centered method. He called all five operators together, told them they knew more about the truck than anyone else because they worked with it every day, asked them to suggest improvements, and left them to work out their recommendations together. *Fourteen* suggestions were made which were refined and utilized by the methods division in developing the new truck. Manager, methods division, and workers were all satisfied.

Selected Significant Research

Hare, A. Paul, "A Study of Interaction and Consensus in Different Sized Groups," *American Sociological Review*, 17 (June 1952), pp. 261-267.

Ninn groups of five boys each and nine groups of 12 boys each played a "camping game." They were told a story that ended in misfortune which required each group to devise a way of getting back to civilization. Each boy was asked to list ten pieces of camping equipment, in the order of importance, for such a trip. Each group was requested to do the same. After the group discussions, the boys as individuals again rated the equipment. The discussion leaders had been classified on the basis of the T.A.T. into good leaders, average leaders, and poor leaders. Group discussion time was always limited. It was found that:

As the size of a discussion group increases from five to 12 members, the degree of consensus resulting from the discussion decreases when the time for discussion is limited.

Although the leaders in the small groups tend to have more influence on the group discussion than do the leaders in the large groups, their individual skill is not an important factor.

The large groups demand more skill from the leader, and in these groups the leader's skill is positively correlated with the amount of consensus, and change in consensus.

Large-group members are less satisfied since they have fewer chances to speak; if an individual has a chance to present his ideas, even if they are not accepted, he is generally satisfied with the results.

Hackman, Ray C., and Rexford C. Moon, "Are Leaders and Followers Identified by Similar Criteria?" *American Psychologist*, 5 (1950), p. 312.

Fifty college students were asked to nominate from the members of their group (1) two persons to serve as a leader of a committee of which the nominator is to be a participant and (2) two persons to serve as committee members on a committee of which the nominator is to be chairman. Also, each student was asked to nominate two individuals in each case who would be unacceptable to him in either role.

Selected Significant Research

A high correlation was found between the frequency with which the same individuals were nominated both as leaders and followers. Frequency of nomination correlates negatively with the score on the persuasive key of the Kuder Preference Record within the selected leader and follower groups, but the same relationship is positive within the rejected leader and follower groups.

Hemphill, J. K., *Situational Factors in Leadership*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1949.

Hemphill studied the relationship between leadership and group dimensions such as size, viscosity, homogeneity, flexibility, permeability, polarization, stability, intimacy, autonomy, control, position, potency, hedonic tone, participation, and dependence.

Five hundred persons who were members of some group were asked to make judgments concerning the leaders' behavior and the qualities of their group. The only two dimensions to show a high correlation, .51 and .52, with leader behavior were hedonic tone and viscosity. Hemphill summarizes his study with the following statement:

"When we consider leadership in relation to the group, it appears to be strongly related to maintaining the group as a unit. . . . When we consider leadership in relation to the individual who is judging its adequacy, we find it most highly related to the dimension hedonic tone, the measure of agreeableness which accompanies membership in a group. . . . When the individual and the group are considered together, we might make the highly oversimplified statement: adequate leadership results in keeping the group together and its members satisfied."

Henderson, Lee. "A Study of Certain School-Community Relationships with Special Reference to Working Patterns of School Principals." Gainesville, Florida: Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1954.

The school-community relationships of schools with "autocratic principals" and schools with "democratic principals" were studied. Twelve autocratic principals and twelve democratic principals with comparable schools in the same school system were selected by the

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use of an instrument which sampled the administrators' sharing of decisions, consideration of the welfare of the individual, and implementation of group decision.

Information was collected concerning parents' feelings about the school, community use of the school, parents' support of the school, and participation of the school in community activities. On thirteen out of twenty items there was a statistical difference between the two groups of schools. On all except the parents' feelings about the student activities programs, the community-school relationship was better in the schools with the democratic principals.

Horowitz, M. W., Joseph Lyons, and H. V. Perlmutter, "Induction of Forces in Discussion Groups," *American Psychologist*, 5 (1950), p. 301.

This investigation tested the hypothesis that one's attitude toward a person would determine the acceptance or rejection of acts connected with the person. Information was secured concerning the feelings of group members toward each other and the agreement or disagreement with certain events that occurred in the group.

Agreement (or disagreement) with acts of individuals in a group is significantly related toward one's attitude toward the person perceived as the source of the act. Each person in the group finds "allies" and "enemies" in the group with regard to his judgment of these acts, and these perceived "allies" and "enemies" are determined by the individual's feeling about the person he classifies.

Jennings, Helen H., *Leadership and Isolation*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1943.

Jennings reports a study of interpersonal relations at the New York State Training School for Girls during a period of eight months in 1937-38. The study examined the choice and rejection patterns of 133 girls.

Findings that bear implications for supervision are: (1) Both leadership and isolation appear to be phenomena that arise out of individual differences in interpersonal capacity for participation and seem to be indigenous to the specific social milieu in which they are produced. Leaders in one community may not be leaders in another community, and isolates in one community may not be isolates in

another. Certain qualities within the individual, however, may be expected to affect favorably or unfavorably an individual's relationship in any group. (2) Age, intelligence, and length of residence do not appear to account to any appreciable extent for the choice status accorded the individual by the membership of the community as a whole. (3) The universal characteristic of the leaders in this study may be an application of their larger insight into the needs of persons generally and at least partially a reflection of greater emotional maturity than appears to characterize the average member. (4) The underchosen show in common many varieties of behavior the effect of which may tend to draw individuals apart rather than bring them together. (5) The underchosen show twice as great an incidence of "nagging, whining behavior" and of "nervous behavior" as do the average-chosen; "aggressive and dominant behavior" are twice as great for the underchosen as for the average-chosen and three times as great for the underchosen as for the overchosen. The underchosen also showed those behavior patterns which interfere with or interrupt the activities of the group.

Johnson, A. D., "An Attempt To Change Interpersonal Relationships," *Sociometry*, 2 (July 1939), pp. 43-48.

Two attempts were made to bring isolates into groups of fourteen-year-old boys. In one case, an adult group leader worked directly with the isolate and in the other the youth group leader, as shown by sociograms, assumed the responsibility of working the isolate into group acceptance. In the situation in which the adult leader attempted to work directly with the isolate, no change resulted. The youth group leader was able to help the isolate win some acceptance by the group.

Kallejian, Verne, Paula Brown, and Irving R. Weschler, "The Impact of Interpersonal Relations on Ratings of Performance," *Public Personnel Review* (October 1953), pp. 168-170.

The supervisors in a department of 425 people in a research and development laboratory were asked to rate the groups they supervised on over-all effectiveness and on 17 specific characteristics of performance.

The reliability of ratings in those cases where two or more indi-

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viduals rated the same groups on the 17 items ranged from $-.60$ to $+.94$. Lack of agreement existed in the over-all rating of performances too.

A skill interviewer, who did not know the department, talked with the 11 supervisors and with members of their work groups regarding their relationships. On the basis of the evidence he collected with regard to feelings about the existing relationships, the interviewer attempted to predict the rating each supervisor would give the work group. The interviewer's predicted ratings, when compared with the supervisors over-all effectiveness of performance ratings, were accurate at the 3 per cent level of confidence.

The investigators concluded that: "The personality characteristics of a supervisor which influence his ratings consist of those attitudes and personal needs that determine the way he sees himself and responds to the world around him. . . . Most superiors are unaware of the factors which reduce the validity of their performance ratings. . . . Individuals whose administrative decisions are based upon performance ratings would do well to recognize the limitations of this kind of information as a basis for action."

Kelley, Harold H., "Communication in Experimentally Created Hierarchies," *Human Relations*, 4 (February 1951), pp. 39-56.

The author used 118 subjects, broken up into five groups, to analyze the communication output of group members in high and low-status positions, with and without the possibility of locomotion between levels.

All subjects were performing the same task, placing bricks, as directed in a set of written instructions. The comments of each person were recorded.

Kelley found that: the more unpleasant the position of a person in a hierarchy, the more his communication contains task-irrelevant content; communication serves as a substitute for real upward locomotion in the case of low-status persons who have little or no possibility of real locomotion; in high-status persons, there is a general tendency to restrict the transmission of content which would tend to lower the status of one's position or which would make oneself appear incompetent; the existence of a hierarchy produces restraining forces against communicating criticisms of persons at the other level; hostility develops as a result of perceiving persons at another level

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either as threats to one's own desirable position or as occupants of a coveted but unattainable position.

Klugman, Samuel, "Cooperative vs. Individual Efficiency in Problem Solving," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 35 (January 1944), pp. 91-100.

One hundred and thirty-six children from the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, with I.Q.'s between 90 and 109, solved arithmetic problems working alone and in pairs. When pupils worked together, they solved more problems correctly but took a longer time. Klugman concluded that the higher scores and longer time needed to solve the problems were due to the presentation, discussion, rejection, and acceptance of the larger number of possible answers which occurred when children were working together.

Lewin, Kurt, "Experiments in Social Space," *Harvard Educational Review*, 9 (January 1939), p. 31.

An experiment was conducted by Lippett and White at the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station to observe the effects of democratic and autocratic atmospheres on clubs that had been experimentally created. Observers noted the properties of groups.

Two groups of boys and girls, ten to eleven years of age, were selected for mask-making clubs. Both groups were equated on such qualities as leadership and interpersonal relations. Eleven meetings of the group were held. The democratically operated group always met two days before the autocratically controlled group. The democratic group chose its activities freely. The autocratic group was ordered to do whatever the democratic group had done. All factors except the group atmosphere were kept constant.

In the democratic group all policies were a matter of group determination; alternate procedures were suggested and the group could choose the course it wanted to follow; group members were free to work with whomever they chose; and the leader attempted to be a group member, giving objective praise and criticism. In the authoritarian group the leader determined the policy, dictated the techniques to be used, told each member with whom he should work, criticized an individual's activity without giving reasons, and remained aloof from group participation. During the meeting of the clubs, observers noted the number of incidents of aggression and the

actions of the leader per unit of time. In both groups the leader was still leading. Both leaders were less submissive than average members of the group, but the difference between the ordinary group member and the leader was much less pronounced in the democratic situation. The autocratic leader took twice as much action toward members of the group as did the democratic leader.

In the authoritarian group, almost thirty times as much hostile domination occurred—such as demands for attention and hostile criticism in child-to-child relationships—as in the democratic group. The democratic group exhibited more cooperation, praise of the other person's work, constructive suggestions, and matter-of-fact behavior. "We-centered" situations, rather than "I-centered," occurred twice as often in the democratic group as in the autocratic group.

Lewin, Kurt, "Forces Behind Food Habits and Methods of Change," *The Problem of Changing Food Habits*, Bulletin of the National Research Council, No. 108, October 1943.

An attempt was made to change the pattern of food selection and preparation of six groups of women. Three groups, one each from three income levels, were given lectures on why they should use such foods as hearts, kidneys, and brains during the war period. Three corresponding groups, sampling the same economic levels, made the group approach to a decision about using the same foods. The group discussion leader talked briefly about nutrition and the war effort. He asked the group how successful a direct appeal to groups of housewives like themselves would be. The group was led step by step to see the problem and at the same time to take over the responsibility for doing something about it. The same information and recipes were distributed by the nutritionist.

Within seven days after the lecture meeting, 4 out of 41 women present served at least one of the three meats recommended. Out of 44 women in the group decision groups 23 women served at least one of the meats. Three per cent of the lecture groups served a food they had never served before, and 23 per cent of the group decision groups tried a new food. The same trend was evident at each economic level.

Lewin, Kurt, "The Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, 1 (January 1944), pp. 195-200.

An effort was made to change students from the consumption of white to the consumption of wholewheat bread. From each student was obtained a rating of his eagerness to reach the goal and his like or dislike of wholewheat bread as compared with white bread. The results showed that after requests to change, the eagerness to succeed was lowest in the individuals who disliked wholewheat bread most and that it increased with the degree of liking for wholewheat bread. After group decision, however, the eagerness to reach a group goal was largely independent of personal likes or dislikes. The experimental studies indicated that it was easier to change ideology or cultural habits by dealing with groups rather than with individuals.

Mandelbaum, D. G., *Soldier Groups and Negro Soldiers*. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1952.

Mandelbaum studied the leadership of the junior officers in the army. He found that the officer's relationship with the primary groups—"the sets of men who are buddies, who interact with each other more frequently than they do with other men, whose cooperation is greater than any which may be required by their military assignments alone"—determined his success as a leader.

He found that an officer who was a part of the primary groups and worked with them was usually able to lead effectively. An officer not a part of the informal group had to struggle with his own men as well as with outside obstacles.

Maier, Norman R. F., "The Quality of Group Decisions As Influenced by the Discussion Leader," *Human Relations*, 3 (1950), pp. 155-174.

A problem was selected for analysis for which one solution was definitely superior to others. This problem was presented to groups of college students, all of whom had received training in group-decision methods, in order to test the problem-solving achievements of groups under leaders of different degrees of skill in leading group discussion.

The results show that a skilled leader with creative ideas can conduct a discussion so as to obtain a quality of problem-solving that surpasses that of a group working with a less-skilled leader without creative ideas. Further, he can obtain a higher degree of acceptance

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than can a less skilled person. The percentage of unanimous agreement obtained in groups was: untrained leader, 62.1; instructed leader, 72.7; most highly trained leader, 100.

In the case of the most-skilled leader who obtained agreement on the desired solution, observers agreed that he did not furnish the solution in any instance. Rather, his contributions were in the form of summarizing, encouraging analysis, interpreting, supplying information, and preventing hurt feelings. In no instance were these observers able to anticipate the solution or point to the leader's bias.

Merei, F., "Group Leadership and Institutionalization," *Human Relations*, 2 (1949), pp. 23-39.

The purpose of the study was to discover the effect of a proven leader upon previously formed groups of children who had not exhibited leadership in previous situations. Experimental groups were established. They met for an hour each day for a week, and a record was made by observers of the emerging group norms relating to seating arrangement, use of play objects, and special language.

An older child with leadership experience in other groups was placed in each group. Out of 26 cases, only one group did not impose its norms on the leader. A leader introduced into a group did not assume a leadership position in that group without first becoming a group member by accepting the group norms that had developed before his entry. The leader was stronger than any individual member, but he was weaker than the group.

National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *Explorations in Human Relations Training*, pp. 63-78. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953.

This report summarizes research on social influence, interpersonal relations, and group functioning that has been conducted in connection with the Laboratory during the time it has been in operation.

Horowitz and others explored the hypothesis that our positive or negative feelings toward other members of a discussion group tend to determine whether we accept or reject the ideas produced by these persons. They found "that members who liked a particular group member tended to react positively to the contributions he made while other members who disliked him reacted negatively to

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the same ideas. . . . Each group member tended to see the persons be liked in a group as feeling the way he did about ideas produced in the group, and be tended to see persons be disliked as feeling different from the way he did about these ideas."

In studying interaction in a group, French and others found: a very high relationship between the amount of behavior initiated toward the group and the amount of behavior be received from others in the group; a high correlation between the amount of behavior initiated by a group member and the sociometric choice of him by other members of the group as a highly productive group member.

Whyte and others studied the problems of change of the official leadership role from one of active leadership to one of resource person with other members taking the more active membership role. When judged in terms of effectiveness of decision or productivity of group movement, "a great deal of frustration and inefficiency results from ambiguity of leadership role which prevents the development of clear cut expectations for appropriate member behavior and does not provide the procedural support necessary so that members' ideas can be adequately recognized and integrated into a group product."

Preston, Malcolm G., and Roy K. Heintz, "Effects of Participatory vs. Supervisory Leadership on Group Judgment," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 44 (1949), pp. 345-355.

Eighty-three students were asked to rank 12 potential presidential nominees according to their own individual order of preference. The students were then divided into groups of four or five each. Leaders were selected for each group and were drawn aside. Half were instructed to proceed in a participatory (think with) manner and half in a supervisory (direct) manner. Group rankings of the 12 men were then formulated. Later, a final ranking was secured from each individual. Data consisted of rank difference correlations between the initial individual rankings, the group rankings, and the final individual rankings.

Participatory leadership was more effective than supervisory leadership as a technique for effecting changes in attitudes. Conversely, the results indicate that subjects are more likely to withstand the impact of group opinion under supervisory leadership, probably indicating that no strong group opinion is formed under this condition.

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The final rankings of participatory subjects were found to correlate higher with group rankings than with their own initial rankings. The final rankings of supervisory subjects, on the other hand, were found to correlate higher with their own initial rankings than with the rankings formulated in their group discussions.

Simpson, Ray H., "The Effects of Discussion on Intra Group Divergencies of Judgment," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 25 (December 1939), pp. 546-552.

This study was an attempt to determine whether discussion of esthetic problems tends to decrease the divergence of judgment and opinion on the problems discussed. A pre-test was given five days before the discussion and a post-test five days after. One hundred and eight college girls participated in the discussions. Twenty-four college girls of similar interests and backgrounds, serving as a control group, took the pre-test and post-test but did not participate in the discussions. The conclusions were: discussion of esthetic problems by a group apparently decreases the divergency of opinion on the material discussed by about 27 per cent, exclusive of the influence of the pre-test on the divergency; the decrease in divergency within a group does not seem to carry over to judgments on similar subjects. Only a 1 per cent decrease in divergency of judgment on similar topics could be attributed to the effect of the discussions.

Sherif, M., "A Study of Some Social Factors in Perception," *Archives of Psychology*, 187 (1935), pp. 5-26.

Subjects were asked to make individual judgments about the distance a light moved. Each estimate was recorded. Later the subjects viewed the light together and discussed its movement. A group judgment emerged.

Again the subjects in the experiment were brought back for individual judgments concerning the distance the light traveled. The final individual estimates were much nearer to the group estimate than they were to the first guesses of the individuals.

Sterling, Theodore D., and Bernard G. Rosenthal, "The Relationship of Changing Leadership and Followership in a Group to the Changing Phases of Group Activity," *American Psychologist*, 5 (1950), p. 311.

The problem studied was: (1) the determination of the different leaders and followers in the group at different phases of group activity and development; (2) psychological characterization of the specific different phases and activities of the group process, and the relation of the specific personality traits of the different leaders and followers to the psychological characteristics of the different phases of the group during which they were leaders or followers.

Sixteen persons from the fields of the ministry, labor, and various academic disciplines comprised the group studied. Sociometric indices and careful analysis of group behavior and transcripts of group meetings were used to determine leaders and followers. A "recently developed method" of analyzing group process was used to characterize psychologically the various phases and activities of the group.

Leaders and followers change with different psychological phases of group process. The same leader usually comes to the fore as similar psychological phases of the group reoccur — e.g., phases of group aggression are usually related to leadership by the most aggressive people in the group. There is a significant relation between personality traits of the leaders and followers, and the psychological characterization of that phase or activity of the group in which they appear as leaders or followers.

Roethlisberger, F. J., and W. J. Dickinson, *Management and the Worker*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939.

Experiments in Illumination

Experiments were conducted to determine the relationship of the quality and quantity of illumination to the efficiency of individual workers. In one experiment, the workers were divided into two groups — a control group and a test group — working under constant illumination and different illumination intensities respectively. The test group worked under intensities of increasing magnitude, 24, 46, and 70 foot candles. Production increased in both the test and control groups and the rise in output was roughly the same.

In another experiment the light was decreased from 10 to 3 foot candles in the test group while illumination intensity remained under a constant level in the control group. The output rate in the test group increased.

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In a third experiment, the workers were allowed to believe that illumination was being increased although no change was made. The workers commented favorably about the "improved" lighting conditions but there was no appreciable change in output.

In the final experiment, intensity of illumination was decreased to .06 of a foot candle. Not until this point was reached was there any appreciable decline in output rate.

Experimenters looking at the negative results realized they were dealing with a human situation in non-human terms.

The Relay Assembly Test Room Experiment

A segregated group of workers was submitted to different kinds of working conditions over a period of five years. A group of five girls was placed in a separate room where conditions of work could be carefully controlled. At specified intervals, different working conditions were introduced to test their effect on output. Records, such as humidity and temperature in the room, the number of hours each girl slept at night, the kind and amount of food eaten at all meals, were kept. The time it took each girl to assemble a telephone relay was automatically recorded. Quality records were kept. The girls were consulted about changes to be made in conditions.

Conclusion: The attempt to relate changes in physical circumstances to variation in output resulted in no statistically significant correlations.

Different experimental conditions of work were set up in this relay assembly test room. Two five-minute rest periods were introduced. The length of the rest periods was increased. Specially prepared lunch was served during one of the test periods. The workday was shortened by one half-hour. The workday was decreased by a total of one hour. The workers were given Saturday morning off. Thirteen such periods of different working conditions were experienced during the first two years. Finally, the original working conditions were restored.

Conclusion: Output, which had risen steadily, maintained its high level after the return to the original conditions. The social situation of the room had been completely altered. The better attitude of the girls improved the rate of work. These experiments illustrated the importance of employee attitudes and sentiments.

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Experiments in Interviewing Workers—1928

The experimenters went into the shops to see if they could learn how to get workers to talk about things that were important to them. They learned that it was difficult to get the person to talk about matters that were important to him and not to the interviewer; that the most important thing to a person was not something in his immediate work situation. They discovered that a person tends to talk about what is uppermost in his mind to a helpful and sympathetic listener. Several times objects of complaint in working situations were changed only to find that the attitudes of the complainants remained the same. Several times nothing was done about the object of complaint and the complaint disappeared.

Conclusion: The behavior of workers cannot be understood apart from their feelings or sentiments. Sentiments are not easily distinguished and are therefore difficult to recognize or to study. Manifestations cannot be understood by themselves but only in terms of the total life situation of the person. The meaning that any individual assigns to a particular change depends on (1) his social conditioning or the sentiments he brings to the work situation because of previous group associations, and (2) the kind of human satisfaction he is deriving from his social participation with other workers and supervisors in his immediate group.

Bank Wiring Observation Room Experiment

A room containing fourteen workmen representing three occupational groups—wiremen, soldermen, and inspectors—was established and observed. The men in the room were on group piece work—the more they turned out the more they earned. Four sentiments operated within the group: (1) You should not turn out too much work or you are a "rate buster"; (2) you should not turn out too little work or you are a rate "chisler"; (3) you should not say anything to a supervisor that would react to the detriment of one of your associates, or you are a "squealer"; (4) you should not be too officious. If you are an inspector, you should not act like one. To be an accepted member of the group, each man had to act in accordance with these standards. If members exceeded these standards, social pressure was put on them to conform.

There were marked differences in the rate of output of individ-

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uals. Thinking that the differences in performance were related to ability, the experimenters compared each worker's relative rank in output with his relative rank in intelligence and dexterity. The lowest producer in the room ranked first in intelligence and third in dexterity. The highest producer ranked seventh in dexterity and lowest in intelligence. Each worker's level of output reflected his position in the informal organization of the group. The best-liked man in the group was the one who kept his output exactly where the group agreed it should be. Conclusion: The wage incentive was weaker than the sentiment concerned with social recognition and group security; management in a continuously successful plant is not related to a single worker but always to working groups.

Appendix B

KNOW YOUR SCHOOL'S PROGRESS

Self-Appraisal Guide Sheet

SINCE JULY 1, 19 —:

Satisfactory
Progress

Unsatisfactory
Progress

What improvements have been made in
the physical facilities of our school?

☐☐

What has been done to improve the in-
struction in our school?

☐☐

How has the quality of the materials of
instruction in our school been improved?

☐☐

What evidences do we have of the im-
provement of instruction?

☐☐

What has been done to enrich our school's offerings?

Satisfactory
Progress

Unsatisfactory
Progress

How has the student activity program been improved in our school?

How has our school increased its contribution to the improvement of living in the community?

What adjustments are we making in our school program to meet the needs of the exceptional child?

How has our school's lunch program been improved?

What has been done to improve the beauty, safety, and cleanliness in our school?

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

How has transportation been improved in our school?	Satisfactory Progress	Unsatisfactory Progress
--	--------------------------	----------------------------

☐
☐

What increases have been made in the
personnel of our school?

☐
☐

What evidence is there of increased in-
terest of the community in improving our
school?

☐
☐

How has our community increased its
use of the school plant?

☐
☐

NEXT STEPS

What are the most important next steps in our school's improvement?

Appendix C

AN INSTRUMENT USED BY A SCHOOL SYSTEM IN EVALUATING ITS IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

The administrative responsibility for providing opportunities in which personnel may grow professionally has been recognized for a long time in the Greenville City Schools. Several different approaches to the problem have been employed. Direction is given to the program by the evaluation of participants. Written questionnaires represent but one type of evaluation and are considered along with comments of teachers and with observable evidences of growth.

Since for the past two years we have used a somewhat different approach to the problem of in-service growth from that employed previously, we feel that a consideration of our successes and failures during that period might be very helpful in determining future procedures. Fifteen commonly accepted objectives are listed below. We shall appreciate your consideration of each of them. Please make a comment where it will help clarify your evaluation or where you feel it might be helpful in some other way. A comment should be made in each case where you consider that little progress has been made.

Your evaluation should not necessarily be in terms of your own growth in each area, but should be more general, giving your observations concerning the entire staff. It should include any experiences available whether or not they are a part of the formal in-service program. If you think of additional areas in which significant progress has been made by our group, please list them with your evaluation. Please return the evaluation, unsigned, to your principal by 12:30 P.M. Friday, June 6.

	Excel- lent	Good	Poor	Ineffec- tive
1. <i>Opening channels</i> (Channels should be so clear-cut and open that any teacher finds it easy to get her ideas to the larger group.)				
2. <i>Finding solutions to problems</i> (Opportunities should be provided for each member to take part in group attack upon problems that are real to him.)				
3. <i>Achieving security and status</i> (Each member should be made to consider himself very important to the effectiveness of the school system.)				
4. <i>Developing skills in teaching</i> (Many opportunities should be provided, under capable leadership, to improve techniques for effective teaching.)				
5. <i>Understanding of children</i> (Teachers should be able to consistently increase their knowledge of child growth and development.)				
6. <i>Understanding the total school program</i> (The program should be such that members acquire better understanding of the total school program and its objectives.)				
7. <i>Establishing good public relations</i> (The program should provide evidence to the community that teachers are anxious to increase their effectiveness, and should increase the participation and effec-				

	Excel- lent	Good	Poor	Ineffec- tive
tiveness of teachers in com- munity work.)				
8. <i>Developing professional atti- tude</i> (Teachers should have experiences which help them develop high ethical and pro- fessional standards.)				
9. <i>Building school pride</i> (Each member should be made to feel proud to be part of the organization.)				
10. <i>Establishing good profes- sional relations</i> (An atmos- phere should be created in which teachers can work with one another and with administrators in a mutually helpful manner.)				
11. <i>Working with parents</i> (Teachers should have expe- riences which increase their skill in working with parents as individuals and in groups.)				
12. <i>Evolving a philosophy of ed- ucation</i> (The philosophy of of a school should be under- standable to all the members and all should have a part in its development and evalua- tion.)				
13. <i>Developing qualities of lead- ership</i> (Since every teacher must be a leader, group ex- periences should be provided in which individuals are able to practice and improve the techniques of leadership.)				
14. <i>Discovering leadership</i> (The organization should be such				

	Excel- lent	Good	Poor	Ineffec- tive
that potentially outstanding leaders emerge and have opportunities to demonstrate their abilities.)				
15. <i>Developing warmth in personal relationships</i> (The organization should be such that members find it unnecessary to be on the defensive in regard to problems. They should grow in security so that they are free to work with other members of the profession, citizens, and children, in a warm, friendly atmosphere.)				

Comments (Please indicate the number of the item to which your comment applies.)

Appendix D

A SCHOOL SYSTEM EVALUATES ITS PRE-SCHOOL CONFERENCE

The Greenville County, South Carolina, schools gave each of the twelve hundred teachers who participated in the week's pre-school conference the following statement:

*Our Plans for Appraising the Effectiveness
of Our Pre-School Conference
August 1954*

Purposes of Pre-School Conference

1. To help us meet the needs of boys and girls more effectively.
2. To increase our ability to work together, to express ourselves, to hear one another, so that *all* have a part in arranging for experiences of real value to us in In-Service education throughout the year.

Appraising Outcomes

The process of examining the extent to which we made progress toward our goals included:

1. Collecting evidence about the things we did. This was done by:
 - a. Asking one person in each interest group to record what he heard for 30 minutes in each session.
 - b. Asking the evaluation consultant to record what she observed in as many groups as possible.
 - c. Asking the evaluation consultant to interview several participants in each center to find out about accomplishments.
 - d. Asking a few members of the evaluation committee to record what they observed in as many different situations as possible.
 - e. In general sessions or at lunch in one or more centers, each member will be asked to record the name of his school on a sheet of paper so that we may determine the extent to which we are seated next to people from schools other than our own.
2. Weighing the information collected to help determine the extent to which progress toward our goal was made.
3. Asking each participant in the conference to fill out questionnaires indicating his opinion about the effectiveness of the conference.

4. Studying the recorder's reports about the accomplishments in each study group.
5. Asking the consultants and the county staff to express their opinions about the effectiveness of the conference. (Discussion meeting, Thursday, P.M. 7:30, county office.)
6. Taking a look at improvements that are made in the schools of Greenville County this year.

Each participant was asked to give his reactions to the conference on the following rating sheet and to state the part he had played in planning and conducting the work of the week.

*Appraising the Effectiveness of
the Pre-School Conference
August 1954*

Directions: Please indicate your opinion by a check mark in the appropriate column at the right.

- | | Very
Much | Much | Little | Very
Little |
|--|--------------|------|--------|----------------|
| 1. To what extent do you think the general session on Monday helped us toward our purposes? | | | | |
| 2. To what extent were the general sessions on the other days helpful? | | | | |
| 3. Were the interest group meetings centered around the problems of concern to the group members? | | | | |
| 4. To what extent did the members of the group help toward the solution of problems? | | | | |
| 5. Were the ideas and methods discussed in group meetings down to earth? | | | | |
| 6. To what extent were research findings (such as scientific studies, authorities in the field, local findings, etc.) used in helping to answer questions in solving problems? | | | | |
| 7. To what extent do you think this conference will be helpful in improving meetings of your local faculty and other teacher groups during this year? | | | | |
| 8. To what extent do you feel that our conference has helped us to become acquainted with, to understand, and to appreciate our fellow workers throughout the country? | | | | |
| 9. To what extent do you consider this conference to have been a worthwhile experience? | | | | |

Check the responsibilities which you accepted during the Pre-School Conference:

- 1. Helped in planning
- 2. Helped in physical arrangements
- 3. Contributed research findings
- 4. Served as leader, recorder, evaluator, etc.
- 5. Assumed leadership in discussion of certain problems
- 6. Participated in discussions
- 7. Suggested problems for study
- 8. Contributed materials
- 9. Other (please list and check)

Appendix E

THE SUPERVISOR EVALUATES HIMSELF

Name _____

Date _____

The effectiveness of supervision is measured by the quality of the human relationships which it produces. Supervision fulfills its objectives as persons work together for the things they value.

From a recent study made of supervisory practices in Georgia it was determined that a successful supervisor shows evidences of acquired competencies and skills in (1) being a "good" teacher, (2) being sensitive to the problems people have, (3) being a democratic leader and executive, and (4) being a resource person.

The following check sheet has been prepared to enable the supervisor to evaluate his work in the light of competencies and skills needed by the supervisor as he works with other people. Each item in the check sheet should be checked in the column that best describes the way the supervisor feels about himself at the time the evaluation is made.

	Always	Often	Seldom	Never
1. Am I letting the staff know I need help?				
2. Am I respecting the judgment and opinions of all teachers?				
3. Am I helping the teachers solve their own professional problems?				
4. Am I giving praise often and emphasizing the good aspects of a teacher's work?				
5. Am I providing ways for teachers to share work being done with others?				
6. Am I familiar with the special work being done by individual teachers in classrooms?				
7. Am I establishing a feeling of confidence in the teachers?				
8. Am I using "we" instead of "I"?				
9. Am I always accessible to the staff?				
10. Am I making myself feel that I "belong"?				
11. Am I keeping my schedule organized so that I know what I am to do next?				

	Never	Seldom	Often	Always
12. Am I making it easy for teachers to come to me with personal problems?				
13. Am I bringing the total staff in to establish goals and policies?				
14. Am I consulting those who will be affected by an action before I take it?				
15. Am I showing likes and dislikes among those with whom I work?				
16. Am I getting the facts before forming an opinion whether good or bad?				
17. Am I giving enough time for orientation of a new program?				
18. Am I working always to improve working conditions of the staff?				
19. Am I taking advantage of helping teachers and parents understand basic facts of child growth and development?				
20. Am I helping teachers in developing a curriculum based on needs, interests, and abilities of children?				
21. Am I helping teachers to develop skills in working cooperatively with children?				
22. Am I helping teachers to acquire competencies and skill in making more and better use of teaching materials?				
23. Am I helping the teachers make better use of resource persons?				
24. Am I helping teachers to recognize problems of relationships in the home, school, and community as well as state, nation, and world?				
25. Am I familiar with local, state, and other people and agencies that can help in the solution of problems?				
26. Am I helping teachers and parents to desire a good school program?				
27. Am I helping teachers and others organize themselves for dealing with school problems?				
28. Am I helping teachers and others execute plans and decisions made by the group?				
29. Am I helping teachers to follow through with their plans?				
30. Am I providing opportunities for teachers to develop potential leadership?				
31. Am I including the staff's help in the evaluation of the school program?				

Developed by Esther Adkins and Christina Bowen, August 1952.

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